THE

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

## AUGUST, 1801.

ART. I.—*Etymologicon Magnum, or Universal Etymological Dictionary, on a new Plan. With Illustrations drawn from various Languages: English, Gothic, Saxon, German, Danish, &c. &c. Greek, Latin,—French, Italian, Spanish,—Galic, Irish, Welsh, Bretagne, &c. The Dialects of the Sclavonic; and the Eastern Languages, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, Sanscrit, Gipsey, Coptic, &c. &c. Part I.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 1*s. sewed.* Robinsons. 1800.

IT has been the employment of many learned and ingenious men to analyse languages, in order to show that they are the results of philosophical investigation, and comprehensive views of their ends and objects. Genuine philosophy is, however, as in most cases, consistent with the more common and obvious opinion upon this subject. As language must have been originally suggested by the necessity of mutual communications, in consequence of mutual wants, there must have been a time when this philosophical grammar could not have existed; for scientific investigation must be subsequent to that period in which physical wants claim the undivided attention. When these are provided for, the question will naturally recur, whether men will once more begin the labour of forming a new language, or extend the crude vocabulary of which they are possest to the new ideas they must be constantly acquiring from the results of their own researches. Their additional acquisitions will probably be more interesting than the form in which they are conveyed: and as the philosophers, for so we may comparatively call them, make but a small number compared with the bulk of the people at large, they will have as little leisure perhaps for the task, as ability to complete it, or power to enforce its adoption. In fact, a philosophical language must be the production of an age of leisure and reflexion; but no such æra can be pointed out in which any known language has been created or introduced. Lord Monboddo, with great ability and knowledge of the subject, has laboured to prove that the Greek is a language of this kind, and has reduced its elements to the simple sounds of *αω̃, εω̃, ιω̃, οω̃*, and *υω̃*,—in reality to *a, e, i, o*, and *u*; yet it required no great philosophical acumen to see the elements of every language in

its vowels. The Greek, indeed, in its extent, its varied inflexions, and philosophical precision, excels all other languages; and could it be admitted that any one is the result of a studied plan, it would be this. Its advantages, however, are rather derived from cultivation than original contrivance: it was a language before Greece was peopled, and advancing towards perfection when society was in a very imperfect state, both on the continent and in the islands. We have a proof of this in the poems of Homer, in which the language is highly cultivated, while the manners introduced are comparatively barbarous. It may be said, indeed, that Homer lived long after the æra whose events he describes, and that he copied the manners of those whose actions he celebrates. He would not, however, have recorded many disgusting events had his own age been much more refined; and, if contemporary with Hesiod, as is now generally credited, he could not have lived many years after the Trojan war, at least not so long as to allow any very great purification of language in an age by no means literary or scientific. In fact, the Grecians brought their language, with their customs and religion, from Asia, through the medium of Egypt. They were of an Asiatic race, who had intruded on Egypt under the denomination of Shepherds.

In all the disquisitions on the origin of language, we are generally referred to two, the Celtic and the Gothic; for, whatever others there may be, the greater number are still referable to these; at least all that it imports us at present to examine. The Celtic has never been highly cultivated, and has probably no pretence to the character of a philosophical language. The Gothic has assumed various forms, and the Greek is evidently one of its scyons. The idea that the Greek resembles the Sanscrit was first suggested by lord Monboddo; and it is *said* to have been the opinion of sir W. Jones, as it is of our author. On this subject we have not received any satisfactory information, but think it highly probable that they may have the general resemblance of languages derived from a parent stock, or that which must be observable, if one be the source of the other. Mr. Whiter thinks he has made a striking discovery, by finding the Gipsey language to be a dialect of the Sanscrit, and considers it as an 'important link, by which the Sanscrit is connected with the Coptic or the Ægyptian.' There was evidently a connexion between Benares, the holy city of Egypt, and the inhabitants of the Nile; but this is no proof of it; for the Gipseys themselves are not Egyptians, but Hindus, Sootras, the lowest cast in Hindustan. When Mr. Whiter plumes himself on another discovery, and tells us that, as the Gipseys call themselves Romans and Romani, 'it will perhaps be discovered by some future inquirer, that from a horde of vagrant Gipseys once issued that band of sturdy robbers, the companions of Romulus and Remus,

who laid the foundation of the eternal city on the banks of the Tyber,' we cannot join in any congratulations upon the anticipation of such discovery, since some ages elapsed before Rome was possessed of its present name, and the Romans always called themselves, till a very late æra, Quirites. Our author adds, with much complacency, apparently in support of the same hypothesis, that he can '*familiarly* illustrate the laws of the twelve tables by the dialect of the Gipseys.' This we can easily believe, if the Greek resemble the Sanscrit; for the Latin of the early æras was a Grecian dialect. These errors, in the preface, did not speak greatly in favour of Mr. Whiter's erudition; and we always supposed that, to avoid being led away by an apparent similarity of sound, to prevent the wanderings which may be occasioned by a delusive *ignis fatuus*, considerable and comprehensive knowledge is essentially requisite. In the introduction Mr. Whiter gives the outline of his plan. His object was to discover one general law which regulated the etymology of words, or rather some general idea, to which words of the same nature and meaning might be referred. His first instances are not, we think, conclusive. The words expressive of father, mother, brother, and daughter, are the same in almost every language. There seems consequently to have been a principle which has pervaded all mankind, in giving nearly the same terms to those who stand in these given relations, which is pursued in their respective correlatives. The vowels, he observes, are not the same; but the consonants are the same, or they are the cognate consonants, or those which grammarians inform us occasionally take the places of the others. The consonants are therefore, in his opinion, the essential parts of the words; and to them we must look in examining etymologies. This idea seems to have been suggested by Mr. Whiter's attention to the Eastern languages, where the vowels are omitted or supplied by points. It ought, however, to be considered that they are as much a part of the word as if they were expressed: the consonants have no sound but from the vowels; and it would be a curious subject of inquiry why they are omitted in the Eastern, while they are the most important letters in the western languages from the same root. We shall only have room to observe that all the ancient letters are in relief, or appear raised, as if they were once representatives of visible objects. In that case they spoke to the eye rather than to the ear, and vowels were unnecessary. When employed in recitation, it was necessary to give the intermediate breathings; but these were, at first, arbitrary, and still continue in some degree so, unless the vowels are expressed or marked by points. In Arabic, which is both an oral and a written language of singular beauty and precision, they are always expressed. In the Hebrew, which is a language that has received little comparative cultivation, they are some-

times omitted, and, as the Oriental scholar knows, the source of much uncertainty. The European letters, particularly those of more modern date, have lost every trace of the original form, and speak to the ear as much as to the eye; while the variety of ideas, with their different modifications, to be conveyed, render vowels indispensably necessary.

In this view, and indeed in every other, the consonants are not the most important parts of words, though in some languages the most pointedly expressed; nor, in the instances adduced by Mr. Whiter, are they the most invariable: on the contrary, the vowels are less commonly altered than the consonants. But what do his instances amount to? To this only, that words which, from their familiarity, are constantly repeated, are still remembered in their usual form; while, in general, the first words learnt by infants are those of the most easy articulation.

Thus mamma is substituted for mother, papa for father, &c. as requiring little skill in the formation of the sound. We can therefore scarcely admit of the warm eulogiums bestowed on this system: they follow the enumeration of the very similar appellations of father, mother, brother, and daughter, in a great variety of languages.

'Surely the contemplation of these facts will impress on every mind a similar train of ideas; and the reader has already anticipated my reasoning and my conclusion on this subject. He will be struck with the deepest astonishment, that facts like these, perpetually passing before the eyes of the etymologist, should never have suggested the principles of a theory and the laws of a system. Among objects liable to the influence of chance and change, it is not possible to conceive a species of uniformity, so full and impressive, as that model of regularity which is here exhibited: The varieties of mutation are bounded by limits of controul, almost incompatible with the vicissitudes of change; and nothing but a fact so striking and unequivocal would have persuaded us to believe that such constancy could have existed in a case where disorder and irregularity might be imagined alone to predominate. These words, after having passed through millions of mouths, in remote ages and distant regions of the world, under every variety of appearance and symbol, still continue, we perceive, to be represented by the same consonants—not indeed by consonants bearing the same name, for that perpetually varies with the form of the symbol; but by those consonants which grammarians have always considered to be of the same kind, and invested with the same power.

'Here then we recognise, manifestly and unequivocally, a principle of uniformity, by which we are at once supplied with the most important maxim to direct our researches in discovering the origin of words. In these inquiries the consonants only are to be considered as the representatives of words, and the vowel breathings are to be totally disregarded. It is necessary, before we advance forward in our discussion, that this maxim should be precisely understood. The principle which I am labouring to establish may be thus more mi-

nutely unfolded.—If the etymologist is desirous of tracing out the same word, as it is called—brother, frater, &c. through different languages, or amidst various modes of writing and pronouncing that word in different periods or dialects of the same language—or if he is desirous of discovering what words, conveying similar ideas, are derived from each other—belong to each other, are successively propagated from each other; he must seek this affinity or relationship among words possessing the same cognate consonants; and to this test only it is his duty perpetually to appeal. He must totally disregard all difference of appearance in the words whose affinity he examines; as that difference arises from the adoption of different vowels in different places; or as that difference arises from consonants bearing a different form and called by a different name. He must regard only the existence of the same cognate consonants—of consonants invested with the same power—consonants of the same kind, which he has seen—known and acknowledged in the most familiar instances to be perpetually changing into each other, in expressing the same or similar ideas. He should acquire the habit of viewing words in their abstract—simple state, as belonging only to these cognate consonants, and freed from those incumbrances, by which their difference of appearance is produced, and under which disguise their mutual affinity to each other has been concealed from his view. I have thus endeavoured, with all possible plainness and precision, to unfold the nature of my hypothesis; and I trust, that, in the explanation of a fundamental principle, the homely language of minute detail may be pardoned or authorised.' P. vii.

Mr. Whiter next explains, from the writings of different grammarians, what are the cognate consonants, to which he adds some others; and indeed they are so numerous as to make etymology a very easy task. He notices, himself, the objection, and gives the most obvious reply to it; viz. that this relationship of consonants was not of his own forming; that it was founded on observation, on the observations of others; and that he had consequently a right to employ them in such a capacity. The apology is ingenious, and would have been satisfactory, had it been supported by fact; but of our author's wanderings with these licences there is no end. Let us take a single specimen, which by accident lies open:—we must premise, however, the principle. Mr. Whiter is pursuing the innumerable words derived from his first radical CB, with its cognate consonants CF, CP, CV, again varied by substituting the cognates G and K for C. The meaning of the radical is

'To be hollow—to contain—comprehend—infold—enclose—confine—retain—hold—to collect or bring together—to contract—to possess or take into possession, &c. &c. &c.

'Hence, 1st. Names of garments—vessels—enclosures of any kind for the purposes of rest—safety—habitation—convenience, &c. &c. &c.

'2dly. To hold—conta in—to collect or bring together—possess or take into possession in abundance—with design, power, or effect;

To catch at any thing frequently or eagerly—to hold forcibly—seize vehemently. Hence words expressing plenty—riches—desire: Terms for instruments holding or held, with their uses and properties: Names of animals distinguished by their eager or ravenous mode of taking their food or seizing on their prey.

'3dly. To have the power of holding or containing, &c.—to swell out—to be prominent—convex or concave—bowing, bending: —To be raised high—to be eminent—the top—the head.' P. 1.

The reader will perhaps smile at this very comprehensive interpretation of CB; and, if he be a mathematician, will set down to calculate the infinite number of combinations these different consonants may make with each of the vowels, with the help of aspirates properly interspersed. We had already found that they would make more than thirty millions, when we desisted, without having exhausted the series. After pursuing, we think somewhat licentiously, the various combinations of his radical, he goes on in the following manner:

'We have seen that the names for *bed* and *sleep* are connected with each other in the Eastern languages; nor shall we wonder at their union. I believe with Martinius, that the Teutonic word *sleep* is derived from the idea contained in the word *slip* and terms of that species, such as the element appears in Latin in the word *solvo*. Martinius has collected under *somnus* the Dutch and German words of this nature. The German term for *sleepy* is *schlaferig;* both of which answer, I think, precisely to our words *slippy* and *slippery*. I have reason, however, to believe that the name for *sleep* in various languages has been commonly derived from the *place* of rest and safety. *Dormio* I imagine to be derived from *domus*, and not from δερμα, the skin, on which they slept; and the reader, I imagine, will not doubt that the Latin *sopor* belongs to the element CB, and is similar to the race of words *kaub*, &c. in the Eastern languages—the CAVE—the KEEP—the SAFE—the *place* of safety and repose. Our etymologists know nothing of all this, but they derive *sopor* from an Hebrew word which signifies *finire—desinere*, "quia eo terminantur actus sensuum nostrorum." Κοιτος is a word for *sleep* in Greek; and it is known likewise to signify the *place* of sleep. Κοιτος—κοιτη—κοιτων, *cubile, lectus*—κοιτις, *lectulus*. Κοιτ⊙ and κοιτη have likewise the general sense of the element, when they signify *arcula, capsula*, without any reference to an enclosure for *sleep*. CT signifies in κοιτ⊙, &c. what it does in *cot—cottage*—κατ⊙—*cadus,—coat*, &c. &c. If I have been able rightly to distinguish, the Gipsey words for *sleep*, as a noun and a verb, are derived from this source. *Sova* is the verb (sopio) and *soto* (κοιτ⊙) is the noun. *Nistis* SOVAVA *ke rat* is in the Gipsey language *I did not sleep to-night*. I believe, however, that *soto* is sometimes used as a verb. *Ga te soto—ga te vodros*, mean, "Go to *sleep*—Go to *bed*. *Ga* is sounded as *jaw*, with the G soft; and I have represented it by G, in order to show its identity with our word GO. This is a very ancient term, and appears in various languages. It is derived from the name of the earth ΓΗ; and hence the Greek ΚΙΩ—the Hindoo *jaaon;* which Mr. Halhed interprets by our word *go*. (Gram. p. 28.)

Their name for *bed*, we see, is *vodros*. The BT is well known as an universal element for an enclosure of rest, safety, &c. It means in Hebrew (בית) "A house; by way of eminence, the temple—a place of habitation—a city. A place or case, wherein any thing lieth, is contained, or is laid up. The grave. The lodgment of any animal, as the nest of a bird, the den of a beast." (Taylor sub voce.) Bullet has seen the force of this element, (Mémoires Celtiques sub voce *Bedd*, vol. 1. p. 2.) and has made a collection of the words belonging to this idea. Mr. Bryant has likewise seen that *beth* signifies a *house* or *temple*. (Vol. 1. p. 96.) "Sleep, or to sleep, *sovanow*," is an explanation in a collection of Gipsey words by Mr. Bryant, (Annual Regist. 1784-5.) and *sowawa* is the term for *sleep* in Grellman, (p. 5.) to which (it is extremely curious!) the parallel word in the Hindostan language is represented by *khab*. The reader must understand, who has not seen the idle compilation of Grellman on the history of the Gipseys, that the collection of Gipsey words in this performance was made by another person, and that it is accompanied by a catalogue of Hindostan words with the same meaning, and, where the author is able to discover them, with the same element. The Greek *eudo* (ευδω) another term for *sleep*, must be referred, I imagine, to the same idea, the *covered spot*, in which repose was taken. It answers to *hut* in the Teutonic languages—the Latin *ædes*—and the Greek ΗΘΟΣ.' P. 55.

Our quotation is somewhat extensive, but we designed it also as a specimen, and it is one of the shortest kind, though, as those who examine the text, viz. the words in the margin, will see, it is not exhausted.—'Blessings on this said *sleep!*' says Sancho, 'it *covers* a man over as with a cloak.' Sancho was a better etymologist than has been supposed; for to 'infold, and 'enclose' are among the first meanings of the all-powerful CB.

Having discovered that, in each sound, the same ideas were represented by the same cognate consonants, one other step only remained, viz. to show that, in all languages, where this affinity pervades, the same element conveys the same train of ideas.

'Here then, we perceive, our theory is at last completed. It is perfect in all its parts, and furnished for all its purposes. The similarity of languages has been the theme of eternal discussion. A few scattered and scanty examples of their coincidence have been perpetually urged; but the whole subject has been involved in the most impenetrable obscurity—embarrassment and confusion:—Here at last we have discovered the important clue, which will guide us safely and readily through all the windings in the great labyrinth of human speech. Under the banners of this directing principle (if I may be again permitted the adoption of metaphor) the numerous tribes and families of words are at once arranged without difficulty or disorder—all marshalled in their due places—and all discharging their various and corresponding functions, with the most perfect uniformity, precision, and regularity. Here at last we have obtained what has ever been sought, but never been discovered—the universal or original language—not indeed existing in the fleeting forms of any peculiar

system or artifice of speech, but in those first and original elements which universally pervade the whole machinery of language—performing in every part the same functions, and operating to the same purposes. I shall not stoop to define the various stages of progress which others have advanced in the prosecution of this theme; nor shall I attempt to adjust the precise meaning, which is annexed to those various maxims, which others have adopted in their inquiries into this subject. I shall only simply observe that the train of ideas which I have now unfolded has not been thus exhibited; nor has any system been formed on its foundation, such as the reader will find established in the succeeding discussions.' P. xxiv.

All this sounds plausibly; yet we cannot perceive why 'hard' should be derived from earth, for many known objects are harder; or *dur*us from *ter*ra, or στερεος from—not from durus, for this is deducing an original word from a derivative; not from γη γαια, or any Greek appellation of earth. Indeed this weak part of our author's system is in many parts conspicuous. The epithets are placed on the same foundation as the appellatives. Supposing them to have been taken from this source, they would have been more obviously of the same nature as the appellative. Hard would not have been earthy, but stony or rocky, and so on. This method of deriving one word from another, with a slight difference in the consonants or the termination, shows that it is the work of a more refined age, and that it occurred after the invention of language. In the ruder languages, if a word be framed to express *one*, additional syllables are added to express *two*; and, in the Algonquin language, one of the numerals, not very remote from unit, is a word of above twenty syllables. This argument may, however, be adduced in favour of language being the effect of study and contrivance; but it will also prove that degree of refinement which studies euphony and convenience.

Notwithstanding the fertility of the resources which this system offers, Mr. Whiter acknowledges that difficulties will arise; and he admits that these radicals must be applied 'with caution, with effect, and with skill:' yet the storehouse which they open is full of valuable information, to be obtained by means of no other key.

'In our Greek vocabularies, as the compilation of Hederic, &c. &c. the humble philologist has soon arrived at the termination of his labours, as they relate to the derivations which are more immediately connected with the genius of the language. He will readily discover the composition of some words from known particles, and the formation of others by established analogies; but beyond these limits all is obscurity and confusion. If the lively Greek, the speaker and writer of the language, were perchance capricious, negligent or forgetful—if, in expressing portions of a similar idea, he sometimes recorded his feelings under the symbol κβ, KB, and again under the

form of χ⊂, CB, our philologists are at once lost and confounded in their inquiries. This shade of a shade of difference (if I may so express it) is to them the wall of Semiramis; through which no powers of mind can penetrate—which no force of intellect can break down. The kindred words, which the same ideas have produced, become at once remote and distant from each other, as creatures of another world; and all traces of their affinity are for ever obliterated. Even the change in the symbol of a breathing is able to derange the system of our lexicographers; and the devices of their art grow feeble and inefficient before such formidable difficulties. In the writings of the Greek the idea of privation has been represented by the symbol α: In his mouth it is a fleeting breathing; and if perchance the recorder of this varying sound should unfortunately be no etymologist—if he should forget or be ignorant that his word was a compound formed from this privative breathing, which was commonly represented by this privative symbol α; if, I say, he should think nothing about all this, or care nothing about all this, and unwittingly record the breathing by ε, ο, ι, υ, αι, ει, οι, (e, o, i, u, ai, ei, oi,) &c. &c. the word is again lost for ever to the etymologist—It stands alone—It is derived from nothing—His α privativa has disappeared, and all his resources are exhausted.' P. xxx.

If it be asked, what are the acquisitions of an author who thus attempts to unfold the minutest elements of language, he has himself explained them. In truth, they are limited to a very slight acquaintance with the Oriental languages, and probably no very extensive one with the Greek. He presumes upon an ignorance of Greek in his reader, with which every scholar will be disgusted, who is supposed often to require a translation of a passage in Thucydides or Plato. Every one may not perhaps, in a moment, comprehend every sentence; but few, who deserve the name of scholars, will have recourse to that refuge of indolence and ignorance—a translation. On the whole, Mr. Whiter seems to possess that share of learning which makes him wonder with a face of praise at his own discoveries: to appreciate them truly, however, requires a much deeper knowledge. It is easy to catch at similar sounds, and to hunt them through the pages of dictionaries of different languages: but it is very difficult to ascertain the appropriate meaning in the best authors, and which are often very distant from what a common lexicon will give. We have followed Mr. Whiter in many parts where he has committed errors of this kind, but have been more anxious to examine his principles than, like the word-catcher, to live only on syllables. Many may have been his errors in words, while his principle may be well established. Should that fail, the greatest acuteness in verbal criticism would not make amends. Yet we cannot deny our author the credit of much labour and shrewdness, with a considerable share of credulity. We smile to see him quoting Chatterton as an ancient, and resting on the petty forgeries of this singular young man as an authority of the practice of other times. It is an error of less

consequence to rest on the poems of Ossian; for what he quotes is certainly Gaelic, whether Ossian flourished in the fourth or fourteenth century—whether he were the author of the poems attributed to him or not.

We shall add one other specimen, somewhat in support of what we have advanced respecting the real meaning of words. Σπευδω and σπερχω have little reference to handy-work. The exertions of the feet, the whole body, and the mind, are most commonly expressed by these words, so that it is somewhat unreasonable to derive them from the hand, with which, when used in ancient authors, they have scarcely any relation, or perhaps no relation whatever.

'I have proved that *kopos* (κοπος,) and *labor* belong to the KP and LB, the *hand;* and I have suggested, that *mokthos* and *ponos*, (μοχθος and πονος, labor,) two other Greek terms with the same meaning, are derived from a similar source. After the illustrations which I have given of the element PN, as relating to the *hand*, the origin of *ponos* will not be doubted; and I shall, in the course of the present investigation, prove that *mokthos* is a word of the same species. The Greek SPOUDE, (σπεδη, diligentia, industria, solertia,) *industry*, must be referred likewise, I imagine, to the SPD, the *hand*. Lennep derives σπευδω and σπεδη from πεω, agito, premo. SPOUDE signifies, as they all acknowledge, *great diligence* exerted in the performance of any business; and from thence is derived the signification of *haste* or *dispatch*. (Σπεδαζω, festino, propero. Σπευδω, festino, propero.) The adjective SPOUDaios expresses every thing which can relate to a character of diligence and industry—ardent—urgent—constant—serious—persevering—laborious in the employment which he has undertaken to perform. We shall find in various languages a race of words corresponding to this idea. SPERKO, SPERKSO, (σπερχω, σπερξω, urgeo, festino, propero) to *press*, *urge*, or *hasten*, is another form of *spoude*, *speudo*, *speuso*, (σπευδω, σπευσω.) The English word SPEED even the etymologists have referred to σπευδω and σπεδη. If we were inclined to investigate *à priori* the probable idea from which terms expressing *diligence* or *industry* were at first derived, we should readily agree that the hands—those important instruments, by which the great operations of man are performed, would naturally have furnished the original idea. *Quickness* and *dispatch* in the work—*prosperity* and *success* in the event, are the ordinary attendants and rewards of *industry;* and in these ideas are comprehended the various senses which are exhibited in the preceding words. *To* SPEED *in our undertaking* is a familiar phrase; but in the expression, *to* SPEED *well or ill in a business*, the term appears to be used for action in general. When the reader has already seen the race of words, which I have above shewn to be derived from SPT, the *hand;* the etymology, which I have now given, will surely be at least received as a probable conjecture; yet the evidence, which I shall now add, will at once remove all our doubts and difficulties on this occasion. The Saxon word, from which *speed* is derived, does not expressly signify the *hand;* but it contains the various senses, which we can conceive to be naturally derived from that source by metaphor

or allusion; such as we actually find attached to the Latin *manus*, either directly as a signification of the word itself, or in meaning, when connected with a phrase. This Saxon term is SPED, the senses of which I shall detail in the order adopted by Lye. *Festinatio* is, according to that lexicographer, the first sense of the word; in which it coincides, as we perceive, with the ordinary use of the English term SPEED. I have shown how readily this idea is derived from the *hand;* and the reader will remember a passage in Horace, where the bustling diligence of *all hands* at work, as we express it, is described by "cuncta *festinat* MANUS." In the second sense it means "eventus, exitus, proventus, effectus, fructus." That the *effect* or final *product* of any thing should be derived from the *hand*—the efficient cause, we shall not wonder; and in the third sense, "*eventus*, sive, exitus *bonus*, *felix*, *secundus*, *prosperitas*;" we are reminded of the same natural combination of *prosperity* and *manual* operations in the prayer, "*Prosper* thou the works of our *hands*—O *prosper* thou our *handy-works*;" as likewise in the Latin phrase "*Succedere* sub *manus*." In the third sense we have every thing which can belong to the *hand:* "Opis, modus, ratio, facultas, potentia, copia, vis—the *means*, *power*, *faculty* of performing any work." P. 303.

If metaphor, poetry, and allusion be brought to the aid of etymology, it will not be difficult to deduce any conclusion from any premises. Such is, however, in general, the method pursued by Mr. Whiter. He has hitherto published only the expanded result of the powerful influence of one radical:—How many are to be traced, and to what extent, we are ignorant.

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ART. II.—*State of the French Republic at the End of the Year VIII. Translated from the French of Citizen Hauterive, Chef de Rélations Extérieurs. By Lewis Goldsmith, Author of the Crimes of Cabinets.* 8vo. 7*s. Boards.* Jordan. 1801.

THE change which has lately taken place in the affairs of Europe must astonish every man not accustomed to look into the history of former times, and to trace the events of the present day to their more remote causes. England was not long ago the soul of the greatest confederacy ever known in Europe. Her vast wealth was expended, and innumerable lives were wasted in a vain and barbarous conflict. France, with destroyed finances, an unsettled government, and civil commotions, baffled every attempt that was made against her liberty, and dictated terms of peace on the continent, at the very moment that all Europe seemed inclined to enter into a similar confederacy against Britain. Nearly the same causes are urged for these extraordinary incidents. Religion and social order do not make part, indeed, of the new manifestoes, but jacobinism is the favourite expression indulged against us; and as the French were

marked as jacobins by land, we are now accused of being jacobins by sea. It is easy to find terms of abuse; and they who have thought no language too gross to be employed against their enemies, must not be surprised if, in return, they find themselves exposed to similar invectives:—*Si mihi pergit, quæ volt, dicere, ea, quæ non volt, audiet.*

But abusive language is unbecoming on both sides, and particularly to those in exalted stations; since they may perhaps be obliged to enter shortly afterwards into amicable negotiation with the very persons who have been the objects of their scurrilities. The events of the present day inculcate this lesson in too forcible a manner; and even fools will at last learn wisdom by experience. We are under the necessity of reconciling ourselves to the new order of things in France—an order which too many among us have presumed to arraign, without knowing the causes on which it was founded, and the strong course of events by which it was operated. It is not too late to be wise, or to gain knowledge from our enemies. The work before us is full of political wisdom. The author is well acquainted with the state of his own country: he has described it in glowing colours indeed; but some excuse may be made for partiality in such a case.—He represents France as the great centre to which other nations must look, and points out Great-Britain as an object not only of diffidence, but in a state of hostility to the rest of mankind. This is not a flattering mirror for the contemplation of an Englishman; but he will do well to examine in what manner these distorted features are presented to his former friends and neighbours to correct the errors of the glass, and to take care that they should see him in his true lineaments. The work is written with great art. It serves equally the purpose of the existing government of France at home and abroad. At home it points out the rising consequence and wealth of the country, softens the animosity of faction, and encourages unanimity; abroad, it enhances the value of a connexion with the French republic, endeavours to show the natural weakness of the English government, and the necessity of wresting from its hands the trident of the seas.

The political state of Europe, established by the treaty of Westphalia, has been destroyed, says our author, by three causes: First, the formation of a new empire in the north of Europe; for, previous to the founding of Petersburg, Russia had scarcely any political relation with European states. Secondly, the elevation of Russia to a place among the powers of the first rank: And, lastly, the prodigious extension of the colonial and maritime system in the four quarters of the globe. On each of these points he descants with great judgement; and the famous navigation act of Cromwell, the foundation of our na-

val superiority, is scrutinised with the severest accuracy. An investigation into these three causes of the change in the affairs of Europe would form, he tells us, a work of the most serious interest and of the highest importance; it would teach us that

'—up to the present moment it was little known how much sagacity is required to determine the basis of a political equilibrium which might balance the respective rights and duties of a great number of states, unequal in force, and in the relation, more or less immediate, which they bear to each other; how much firmness and wisdom is necessary to maintain that equilibrium, and how many lucky circumstances to restore it when once broken: it would, in fine, shew, by opposing all that the states of Europe have done for the last century to what they ought to have done, that it is less the interest of each power to extend its military, maritime, and administrative systems, than to bring them to perfection;—that the rule in the developement of these three systems is not so much the knowledge of the momentary want that may be felt for them, as that of the means they may be certain to possess, and the solidity and permanency of these means;—that, in this respect, every government is not only interested in not deviating from the rule, but also should take care that its neighbours, its friends, or its rivals, do not swerve from it any more than itself;—that an allied power brings on its own ruin by infringing on the right its friends have to its assistance;—that a rival power, by overstraining the developement of its military, administrative, and maritime means, acquires for a time the faculty of annoying, and puts itself in a condition to make others feel the effects of its acquired superiority, and oblige them to support the inconvenience and expence of the vicious and over-bearing system they allowed it to adopt. In such a case the remedy is not a false and expensive principle of imitative emulation, but the concert of all the other powers, which ought not to suffer that, in any part, the state of peace should serve to prepare the means of oppression; and which ought, on the other hand, to take care that each state should confine itself within the bounds which a legitimate defence requires, and which, in fine, ought, in times of tranquillity and good understanding, to watch the recruitings and the augmentations of land forces, the increase of taxes, and the hoarding of treasures, amongst each other, with as much jealousy as the maritime powers shew in respect to projects of armaments, ship-building, expeditions, &c. which have ever been amongst them subjects of remonstrances, explanations, and apologies.' P. 27.

From this general view of Europe we are led to the general situation of France, concerning which, with respect to foreigners, these three points are discussed:—Is a system of public law necessary for Europe? Did such a system exist previously to the war? Does such a system exist at this moment? These questions lead to important discussions, and a new federative system upon good principles is recommended. How necessary it is for us to keep our eye upon this new system may be seen

from the principles laid down for its establishment. First, every alliance ought to have for its object, in peace, to guarantee the permanence of existing relations; and in war, to concert the means of defending such relations against the enterprises of the common enemy. Secondly, every alliance ought to have for its object, both in war and peace, to guarantee the political interests of the continent against the exorbitant ascendency of the maritime interests. The blow intended against England is here openly announced; and, to justify it, some of the supposed injuries which the continent receives from this country are enumerated, with the insinuation that a larger work is necessary to enter into the whole detail of this extensive subject. But as time is wanting, the author, with great skill, presses our ministerial speakers into his service, who, perhaps, have been very powerful agents in exciting the jealousy of Europe against us.

'No speech is delivered from the ministerial benches in parliament; no work, whether German, English, or French, is devoted to the defence of the English minister; in which we are not presented with a picture of all the states of Europe groaning beneath the burdens they support, their governments discouraged and undecided, the people a prey to every affliction—every temptation of wretchedness; and England alone enjoying, without a rival, all the blessings of internal tranquillity, of active industry, and of a commerce that drains, almost exclusively, the four quarters of the universe.' P. 126.

This leads the writer to examine very closely the connexion between maritime and continental commerce, between general and national commerce, and between national commerce and the power of the state—to observations on restoring the political and commercial independence of nations—and of emancipating the national industry of all countries. Among foreigners these remarks will make considerable impression; and a true statesman will not, in our own country and in these times, think them unworthy of notice.

The point at which the writer is aiming is now in sight. Our code of maritime laws is examined. The great reformation recommended in them, of which France is to take the principal merit, terminates in the two following regulations. First, the abolition of cruising and privateering: in time of war, the sovereignty of territory, with all its rights, being to be transferred to the flags of nations who take no part in the war. Secondly, in time of peace the navigation from one people to another is proposed to be subject to no prohibitory laws, with one exception only, which relates to coasting from one port to another belonging to the same nation, and the navigation between the colonies of their mother-country. These were the prime points at issue in the late northern confederacy. We rejoice at the

concessions which have taken place upon this subject—they are as consistent with true policy as with essential justice; for no one can doubt that, if, by overstraining our rights, or by urging them to the utmost, we should compel the neutral powers to throw themselves into the arms of France, and to listen to what are here stated to be the sources of our naval greatness, we should abuse our naval superiority to our own injury.

Having thus excited sufficient indignation against England, the writer examines the interior situation of France with respect to its population, its industry, its laws, and its customs. Here he discovers as competent a judgement as in the rest of the work. Though it was certainly beneath him to refer to such writers as Sir F. d'Ivernois, Messrs. Rose, Middleton, Beeke, &c. and though we may call in question his assertion of the decrease of population in England, yet we cannot deny that he has strong grounds for such an assertion; and when he gives the government credit for varying its financial arrangements, he points out, we fear too truly, that the prosperity of finance and prosperity of a country are two very different circumstances.

'The English government has rendered the nature of her power entirely independent of those classes of the national population whose industry has suffered from the war. The misery of these classes has only been felt as a financial obstacle: population has decreased without affecting the revenue. The impossibility of these classes subsisting without labour has proved only a social inconvenience to the government, for which it can provide by an increase of the poor-rates; which being already more than triple what they were before the war, at the same time sufficiently proves what I have already said of the poverty of the manufacturing classes of England, and the arts to which its government resorts to counteract that poverty.' P. 191.

France is represented to be in a very different situation.

'In France credit is not organised on so vast a scale, and is not formed of elements so numerous and difficult to combine. The ears of the French are not dinned with statements of the hundreds of thousands the government must pay.

'Gold and silver shew themselves alone, without meeting in the channels of circulation the light substitute of paper-money, of exchequer bills, navy bills, bank notes, &c. &c. which being more easily put in motion and multiplied than the cash they represent, are less calculated to exhibit a statement of the public prosperity than to keep up illusions favourable to credit, to render the interest of the national wealth subservient to the views of power, and to facilitate the abuses which this last may be enabled to make of its ascendancy.

'The French government has no need, like that of England, to make a parade, to exaggerate and to emblason the representation of the statistical situation of the nation, in order to induce the people quietly to bear the expences of the year. Let the English ministers endeavour to persuade a nation that must furnish to the treasury in

one year fourteen hundred millions and a half in taxes, half in loans, that its general revenue is four milliards. There is nothing astonishing in this exaggeration in the constrained position in which the ministers find themselves placed with respect to the public opinion: the estimates they publish are without doubt difficult to prove, but at all events they must let them wear the air of probability. It is necessary that their orators and their writers should incessantly exalt the national resources, aggrandising the aspect of public wealth, of industry, and of credit. They must, by every means possible, preserve in the minds of the people the illusions that are become more necessary than ever. All the edifice of their power would give way in a day, if the national discernment was left to itself, and if they gave it the time, and the necessary reflection, to examine what are the true bases of credit, what is the real state of the national opulence, and by what forced and artificial springs it is connected with the power of government.

'The task of the writers that have to raise amongst us the hope of the friends of liberty, and to cheer up the French on the fate of their country, is more easily accomplished: the refutation of all that malevolence publishes on the evils of the past, on the dangers of the future, are entirely comprised in this simple observation. France has passed through ten years of revolution and eight years of war: she still exists, and never was she more powerful. She has then furnished, without weakening herself, whatever was necessary for her preservation; and she will continue to do so, without hazarding her power, to whatever extent the supply may be necessary.' P. 216.

In this part are many judicious observations on taxation and the revenues of a nation. The value that we set on exports and imports is not considered by this author as of a very high importance. If we estimate the revenue produced by industry in exportation at one-thirtieth part of the general income of the nation, he is contented that in France it should make less than an hundredth part. He shows also that France has by no means been ruined by the war, that her armies have been fed at the expence of her neighbours, and that the war itself has occasioned a circulation of industry in the interior of the country. But the great point, to which our attention is now called, is the probability of the permanence of the present government.

The previous question, the origin of the revolution, is well examined: it is not attributed to philosophy, as the philosophers vainly dream; nor to the disorder in the national revenues, which pleases the financier;—for philosophers and financiers mistake accidents for principles, and concomitant circumstances for causes. The great cause arose from 'the action of the commercial system, and the spirit of industry on the social system of all nations in Europe.' Hence an alteration in manners took place, but the laws remained unchangeable. The laws separated the nation into three classes—the nobility, the clergy,

and the *tiers-état;* but in manners they had lost much of that ancient spirit which had laid the foundation for the distinction. Bravery was not confined to the nobility, nor learning to the clergy; and the chief discrimination in society was that of men of fashion and the vulgar: hence the privileges conferred by the laws on one class excited the opposition of those who were without such privileges; the disorganising cause continually increased, till, at last, it 'overcame all obstacles, swept off the casts, abolished the privileges, and overturned the monarchy.'

The fatal blow struck on the privileged orders is justly attributed to Colbert, whose encouragement of commerce began that change in France, with respect to nobility and clergy, which our two Henrys, the Seventh and the Eighth, produced by other means in this country. In England the two higher orders were gradually restricted, whilst the third was as gradually rising into consequence: in France the third order arose with immense strides, whilst the laws prohibited the nobility from engaging in the same career of wealth, by which they were incapacitated from a contest with that part of society which was once held in contempt. What is the case then with the new government? Its stability evidently rests on these bases: the conformity of the new laws to the manners of France—the glory of her greatest men being linked with the maintenance of her institutions—the dependence of their fame on the character, the manners, and the opinions of the nation. That these are sure bases the author proves very satisfactorily, and thus justifies any administration in its attempts to negotiate with the new republic. His conclusion is such as may be naturally expected; but it does not lead us to despond: wisdom, and a high degree of it too, is requisite in the present situation of our own country—and from such wisdom both nations may derive great advantages.

'In the comparison which I have drawn between the state of England and that of France, I have proved that futurity is a period of anxious uncertainty for the power of England, a critical and trying time for her riches; whilst, with respect to France, it presents nothing but hope, improvement, and progressive prosperity. I have given a picture of both countries, and shewed that England, though mistress of the seas, though she has monopolised the commerce of all nations, and secured herself by her insular situation from the calamities of war, is, nevertheless, now reduced to the necessity of exhausting all the resources of an overstrained credit, to stretch to the utmost pitch all the springs of her financial administration, and to employ the last efforts of the system of taxation to support the charges of the war. I have shewn, on the other hand, France, though scarcely emerged from the chaos of intestine dissensions—though long distracted at home, and fighting for eight years against the greater part of the states of Europe—still contending with the four greatest empires in

the universe, always resisting, always impenetrable, always keeping up armies capable of defying all the powers coalesced against her independence, maintaining herself on their territory, and providing for all her expences by a system of taxation a fourth lighter than that with which she was burdened before the revolution. From these facts I inferred that France is powerful, since she has triumphed over all the attempts of her enemies; that her power has sustained no diminution, since it is as sufficient now as it was ten years ago for the same efforts of attack and resistance; and, finally, that her power is in a course of progressive advancement, at once certain and rapid, since at the same time that the prospect of her burdens and her dangers being diminished draws still nearer, she beholds, both around and in the midst of her, the means of security, of happiness, and riches, improving and multiplying beyond all power of calculation.' P. 310.

We have given a copious detail of this work, not only on account of the high situation of the writer in the republic, and the evident views he had in its composition, but because it is a publication of great political sagacity, and is received with considerable approbation on the continent. To every statesman who considers the situation of this country in relation to the rest of Europe, (and, unfortunately, we have too few of this description among us,) the perusal of this work must, in the present times, be deemed indispensably necessary.

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ART. III.—*Asiatic Researches; or, Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vol. VI.* 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Sewell. 1801.

AS this interesting work is now regularly reprinted, our account of it will be also more regular; and we willingly hasten to take up the sixth volume; since, in inquiries so distant from the common routine of literature, we must always meet with novelty and entertainment, and, not unfrequently, with valuable information.

The society have, with great propriety, prefixed a list of desiderata; in other words, of subjects not hitherto clearly understood: on the utility of which plan we need scarcely enlarge. It will suggest to the inquisitive traveller many of those objects of research which he might otherwise pass over unobserved; and, by the judicious selection of its queries, it will probably tend to render the European government in India more easy and satisfactory to the natives, by a proper accommodation of laws to their customs. These desiderata we cannot abridge: no resident in India will think of learning them from our journal, as the Researches themselves must be in the hands of every individual.

'I. A Discourse delivered at a Meeting of the Asiatic Society, on the 18th of January, 1798. By Sir Robert Chambers, Knight, President.'

The discourses of the first president were deep and interesting discussions. This before us is slight, and chiefly consists in an eulogium on sir William Jones and lord Teignmouth, his predecessors in the chair. To supply the place of such men was not easy: with whatever respectability and dignity sir Robert Chambers may fill this office, (and we shall not deny that he highly merits the distinction,) from his limited information in the Oriental languages he cannot be expected greatly to assist the plans of the society.

'II. Narrative of a Journey from Agra to Oujein. By William Hunter, Esq.'

Mr. Hunter's journey from Agra to Oujein is, in some respects, interesting, though by far too minute. Agra is a little to the south of Delhi, and Oujein in the Mahratta state, verging to the south and west of Agra. The whole of the country has been acquired by Sindiah, and is, yet, by no means in a tranquil or secure state. The circumstances of Sindiah's political situation are of inferior importance in this narrative. They were such as led him to Oujein and Poonah at this time, contrary to the advice of his wisest ministers and best friends. About the beginning of the year 1792, major Palmer received orders to join him; and the journal of the travels of himself and suite are subjoined. They chose the route by Gualior, a hill fort, famous from the successful escalade by which major Popham took it in 1780, in consequence of its being a more settled country, and where the passes of Sindiah would be more respected. The little local history interspersed in this journal would be uninteresting to copy, so that we shall chiefly notice what relates to Oujein, a city celebrated in the ancient history of Hindustan, and considered as the first meridian by the Hindu geographers and astronomers, whence its situation is of considerable importance. Our author found, by a medium of eleven observations of Jupiter's satellites, its longitude from Greenwich to be 75° 51′ E. and its latitude, by a medium of eight observations, 23° 11′ 13″. We perceive that major Rennell has laid it down in nearly the same situation. The ancient city was overwhelmed by a convulsion, which, in the East, so often overthrows cities and buries extensive plains under the sea. A shower of cold earth is said to have covered the old buildings; and ruins are undoubtedly visible at some depth. An idle legend, as usual in countries abounding in fable, explains this catastrophe from the vengeance of Inder; but it seems in reality to have arisen from an inundation, since the superjacent earth is an alluvial deposition, and by no means volcanic. The cave or subterraneous abode of the rajah Bhirtery is sunk about three feet in the earth, or rather

the surface is raised to this height; for the principal effects of the inundation are chiefly conspicuous in the site of the town itself. The new city is distant about a mile from the former, and is of an oblong form, about six miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. Though, as usual in the East, there are some gardens, yet, on the whole, it is a populous town, with an extensive trade. The only Mahrattas are the officers of government. The other inhabitants are Hindus and Mussulmans, who speak a dialect resembling that of Agra and Delhi.

'The mussulmans form a very considerable portion of the inhabitants; and of their number a great part is composed of a particular class, here known by the name of Bohrah. They distinguish their own sect by the title of Ismaeeliah, deriving their origin from one of the followers of the prophet, named Ismaeel, who flourished in the age immediately succeeding that of Mahommed. This singular class of people forms a very large society, spread over all the countries of the Decan, particularly the large towns. Surat contains 6000 families, and the number in Oujein amounts to 1500. But the head-quarters of the tribe is at Burhânpoor, where their moullah or high-priest resides. The society carries on a very extensive and multifarious commerce, in all those countries over which its members are dispersed, and a certain proportion of all their gains is appropriated to the maintenance of the moullah, whose revenue is consequently ample. He is paramount in all ecclesiastical matters, and holds the keys of paradise; it being an established article of faith that no man can enter the regions of bliss without a passport from the high priest, who receives a handsome gratuity for every one he signs. But he also exercises a temporal jurisdiction over his tribe, wherever dispersed; and this authority is admitted by the various governments under whose dominion they reside, as an encouragement to these people, who form the most industrious and useful class of the inhabitants. A younger brother of the moullah resides at Oujein, and with that same title exercises over the bohrahs resident there the authority, spiritual and temporal, annexed to the office. Five mohillahs of the city are inhabited by them, and subject to his jurisdiction.' P. 44.

Mr. Hunter describes the principal vegetable productions observed in this neighbourhood, and particularly the cultivation of the poppy and the collection of opium. The most distinguishing circumstance relating to the latter is the mixing oil during the collection, and even afterwards, so as to render the opium of this district unfit for making a clear tincture. The proportion of oil amounts to half the quantity of the pure drug, about one third of the mixed mass. The following meteorological observations are of importance. The quantity of rain that fell in the rainy season is truly astonishing, and indeed admitted to have been singular even at Oujein.

'We remained at Oujein from the middle of April to the middle of March, and so had an opportunity of observing nearly the whole

vicissitude of seasons. In the month of April and May the winds in the day time were strong and hot, the thermometer exposed to them being from 93 to 109, at four in the afternoon. These winds, with little deviation, came from the westward. The heat at nine in the evening varied from 80 to 90. But the mornings, during all this time, were temperate, in only one instance rising so high as 81, and sometimes being as low as 69. From the 18th to the 25th of May we had frequent squalls from NW and WNW; once from NE, attended with thunder, lightning, and rain. The quantity that fell during these eight days amounted to about ten inches. This weather, the inhabitants informed us, was unusual at that season. It produced a temporary coolness; but the sky having cleared up before the end of the month, the air returned to its former temperature, or rather exceeded it, for the morning heat now sometimes mounted as high as 85.

'On the 11th of June the rains set in, and the quantity that fell during the season was as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| May, as above, about | 10 inches | 5 days. |
| June - - - | 3,521 | 9 |
| July, - - - | 12,071 | 22 |
| August, - - - | 21,088 | 22 |
| September, - - | 5,651 | 9 |
| | 52,331 | 67 |

'The rain terminated on the 14th of September. From the middle of June to the middle of July the afternoon heat varied from 107 to 86, gradually diminishing as the season advanced, and sometimes, from the continuance of the rain, was as low as 80. The morning was more uniform, its extremes lying between 87 and 77. The evening, between 90 and 75. The weather, during this period, was constantly cloudy, sometimes hazy. The wind, uniformly from the westward, varying from NW to SW.

'From the end of this period to the termination of the rains the afternoon heat was from 89 to 74. The limit between the two periods was strongly marked, July the 15th, at P. M. being 91; 16th, at the same hour, 78. The morning, from 80 to 72. During this period the clouds were so heavy and so uniformly spread over the whole face of the heavens, that the sun could seldom dart a ray through the gloom. The rain was frequent and long continued, but seldom heavy. The only instance in which the rain of one day amounted to so much as three inches was in the space between the 15th of August, at 7 P. M. and the 16th, at 9½. The rain, during this period, of 26½ hours, was incessant, and the quantity amounted to 10,128 inches. It then abated, but did not entirely cease till the 17th, at 4½ P. M. The quantity in that interval was 0,629. This it was which caused the inundation formerly mentioned. The waters continued to rise till the 16th at midnight, and then gradually subsided; but it was several days before the river was fordable by men or horses.

'The winds, during this period, were most frequently west, sometimes NW or SW, twice SSW, four times south, and thrice easterly, commonly light breezes.

'After the rains were over, and the sky cleared up, the mid-day and afternoon heat increased. By the 23d of September it was 92; October 1st, 101; and till the middle of November was seldom under 90. The morning heat during that period gradually decreased from 73 to 46. The evening from 79 to 57. The dew towards the end of this period was very heavy.

'The winds for the first two days continued at west; afterwards calm and light airs at NE to the end of September. To the middle of October those of the NW quarter prevailed, of moderate force, but with frequent calms. To the end of the month the NE prevailed, and the mornings were hazy. In November, till the 6th, the westerly was the reigning wind, after which, to the 15th, the NE recovered its prevalence: the weather was less hazy than towards the end of the preceding month. On the other hand, during October, there was not a cloudy day. To the 8th of November they were frequent; and, on the the 4th, a little rain fell; after that to the 15th the sky was clear, and the only two hazy mornings were in this period.

'At this time (15th November) I was seized with a fever, which interrupted the meteorological observations till the 1st of February. All that I know of the weather during that interval is, that about the middle of December we had it stormy, with thunder and a pretty heavy fall of rain.

'From the 1st of February to the 14th of March, when we left Oujein, the afternoon heat varied between the extremes of seventy-three to 103. The first, on Feb. 9th, with wind at NNW: the second, March 12th, wind west: sky at both times clear. Morning heat from forty-six to sixty-seven; evening from fifty-five to seventy-six.

'The westerly were the prevailing winds during this period, varying between NNW and SSW. In February, the easterly wind was observed twice in the morning, four times at mid-day, and twice in the evening. It did not occur once during our stay in March. The sky was clear, excepting the 4th of February, which was cloudy, with a shower of small rain.' P. 52.

Among the diseases of this district our author mentions the Guinea-worm, which seems pretty certainly to be lodged under the skin by an aquatic animal; for it is commonly found in the lower extremities, which are frequently immersed in stagnant water. In one instance only did it occur in the arms. The patient was a bhishtee, or waterman, whose arms were as often wetted as the inferior extremities of others. The generation and growth of the worm are slow; for our author's attendants were exempt from it during the eleven months' residence at Oujein, and the disease only appeared five months after their removal. Our travellers returned by a north-eastern route, which offers nothing peculiarly interesting. To the westward of Futtehpoor is an ancient palace of Akber; and the pavement of one of the square courts is marked like the cloths on which the Indians play pacheess, the prototype of the modern chess, in which it is said the emperor used to direct the motions of the

pieces, represented by men, distinguished probably by their appropriate insignia.

'III. An Account of the Inhabitants of the Poggy Islands, lying off Sumatra. By John Crisp, Esq.'

These islands are on the western shores of Sumatra, connected by a narrow strait, well defended from the winds, so as to form a secure harbour. Though in the vicinity of Sumatra, the inhabitants do not resemble those of what may be comparatively styled the adjoining continent. They are of a more eastern race, and appear to have a traditional account of an Eastern origin. In fact, they seem to resemble, in all their manners and customs, the Otaheitans, without their propensity to war or pilfering. War indeed seems not to have been always unknown, since they preserve some remains of war canoes; but the present inhabitants of the Poggy Islands are mild and affectionate to each other, and even to strangers. Mr. Crisp seems to think these islands to have formed at one time a part of Sumatra, and to have been separated from it by some convulsion. But in these seas land increases by the accumulation of coral rocks, instead of being overwhelmed; and that the Poggy Islands are of this kind is evident from the depth of water in this strait, and the want of soundings, even near the shore. Besides, their only quadrupeds are hogs and red deer, animals that may have been conveyed in canoes. The tygers and other ravenous animals of Sumatra are unknown. A vocabulary of several of their words is subjoined.

'IV. Observations on the Theory of Walls, wherein some particulars are investigated which have not been considered by Writers on Fortification. By William Lambton, Lieutenant in his Majesty's 33d Regiment of Foot.'

Some circumstances relating to the resisting power of walls, which have been overlooked by former authors, are well explained in this paper; but the whole is in a mathematical form, and of course incapable of abridgement.

'V. On the Poison of Serpents. By William Boag, Esq.'

Mr. Boag's observations are communicated by Mr. Duncan, who gave, in the fifth volume of the Researches, a curious account of Purana Poori (the Sunyassy)'s travels. Our author, on this occasion, corrects, from a later conversation with the Sunyassy, his description of the source of the Ganges, which we copied in our XXVIIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 377; and we shall now of course copy the correction. The Sunyassy in the present article declares that he

'—clearly understands the hill or pinnacle in question to be situated only two miles to the southward of Maunseerweer lake; as well as that the Ganges flows visibly from what he now says he has heard to be its spring head in that hill, to the distance of between

seven and eight miles; and thence works itself a subterraneous passage, until it again emerges in the country of Kedar Nauth, at the place called Gungowtry.' P. 102.

It is to be regretted that, in an account of the same places, by the same author, the orthography is so different. Even the name of the Sunyassy is made to vary occasionally.

Mr. Boag's paper is not very important. He thinks that the poison of serpents is fatal by abstracting the oxygen of the blood; and indeed the appearances of this fluid, in animals which die in consequence of the bite, support his doctrine. The principal remedy, viz. the lunar caustic, supplies, in his opinion, the abstracted oxygen; while the other remedies, viz. the different vegetable substances, used to counteract the poison, the volatile alkali, &c. excite the powers of the system to oppose the effect which usually arises from the diminution of this principle. He is even inclined to extend his doctrine to other poisonous effects, particularly the venereal disease, resting on the salutary powers of nitrous acid, according to the system of Mr. Scott, which, at least in Europe, has not succeeded. The amount of oxygen, however, in the small portion of lunar caustic employed, prevents us from acceding to Mr. Boag's doctrine; and, in his experiments, he is candid enough to allow that the remedy has not answered. He tried it in small animals, among whom, he thinks, the activity of the poison is greater; but hints that it may be more efficacious in the human species. Among the latter, however, as the poison is confessedly not equally deleterious, the power of the remedy is more suspicious. On the whole, we think Fontana has by no means fully proved that the poison of serpents does not act on the nerves, though we must admit that the changes in the fluids are more immediate and considerable.

'VI. An Account of the Petroleum Wells in the Burmha Dominions, extracted from the Journal of a Voyage from Ranghong up the River Erai-Wuddey to Amarapoorah, the present Capital of the Burmha Empire. By Captain Hiram Cox, Resident at Ranghong.'

These wells, which afford petroleum in large quantities, at no great expence, are highly important in a spot where, from the luxuriant growth of teak, ship-building must be an object meriting particular attention. We shortly noticed the spot in which they are situated in our review of major Symes's narrative; but we shall now describe them more particularly. They are nearly three miles from the river, scattered up and down the country. The oil rises at a moderate depth, in a mineral tar of a dark green colour and a fragrant smell; nor is the sinking the wells or raising the petroleum an unhealthy employment.

'The soil or strata to be pierced is nearly such as I have described

the cliffs to be on the margin of the river, that is, first, a light sandy loam intermixed with fragments of quartz, silex, &c.; secondly, a friable sand-stone, easily wrought, with thin horizontal strata of a concrete of martial ore, talc, and indurated argill, (the talc has this singularity, it is denticulated, its lamina being perpendicular to the horizontal lamina of the argill on which it is seated,) at from ten or fifteen feet from the surface, and from each other, as there are several of these veins in the great body of free-stone. Thirdly, at seventy cubits, more or less, from the surface, and immediately below the free-stone, a pale blue argillaceous earth (schistus) impregnated with the petroleum, and smelling strongly of it. This they say is very difficult to work, and grows harder as they get deeper, ending in schist or slate, such as is found covering the veins of coal in Europe, &c. Below this schist, at the depth of about 130 cubits, is coal. I procured some, intermixed with sulphur and pyrites, which had been taken from a well deepened a few days before my arrival, but deemed amongst them a rarity, the oil in general flowing at a smaller depth. They were piercing a new well when I was there, had got to the depth of eighty cubits, and expected oil at ten or twenty cubits more.

'The machinery used for drawing up the rubbish and the oil from the wells is an axle crossing the centre of the well, resting on two rude-forked staunchions, with a revolving barrel on its centre, like the nave of a wheel, in which is a score for receiving the draw rope; the bucket is of wicker-work, covered with dammer; and the labour of the drawers, in general three men, is facilitated by the descent of the inclined plane, as water is drawn from deep wells in the interior of Hindostan.

'To receive the oil, one man is stationed at the brink of the well, who empties the bucket into a channel made on the surface of the earth leading to a sunk jar; from whence it is laded into smaller ones, and immediately carried down to the river, either by coolies or on hackeries.' P. 129.

The supply is not likely to be soon exhausted, as the sinking one well does not appear to lessen the quantity in the adjoining ones; and, when a well is dry, it is only necessary to sink it deeper. The warmth of the earth keeps the petroleum in a fluid state: in the open air it is a little less so than below, and in cold weather it congeals. Mixed with dammer, the resin of the country, it is used for paying the timber of the houses and the bottom of boats, which it preserves from decay and vermin; and, medicinally, it is employed as an embrocation in rheumatic pains, and a lotion in cutaneous diseases. It is a source of considerable wealth to the country; for the wells produce annually 412,360 hogsheads, worth, on the spot, 889,737 sicca rupees. The wages for raising the oil are not greater than for any other labour.

'VII. On the Maximum of Mechanic Powers, and the Effects of Machines when in Motion. By Lieutenant William Lambton, of his Majesty's 33d Regiment of Foot.'

This very important article, as it is replete with mathematical reasoning of a very recondite nature, we cannot abridge.

'VIII. On the Religion and Literature of the Birmas. By Francis Buchanan, M. D.'

Dr. Buchanan's statement of the literature and religion of the Birmas is a learned and valuable work; but it is almost too extensive for an article in a compilation; nor is it in our power to give an adequate account of it, since a great part is employed in a translation of an abstract of the Birman literature, which, among numerous absurdities and fancies, contains, occasionally, some passages which show that the whole has been taken from a superior source.

We observed, in our review of major Symes's narrative, (Crit. Rev. New Arr. vol. XXX. p. 156,) that the religion of Birma is that of Budha; and there is, in our author's opinion, great reason to think that the religion of Budha was the original system of Hindustan, not wholly eradicated even in the twelfth century of the Christian æra. In our review of the publications relating to Asiatic literature, we have had occasion to hint, that the system of the Bramins was not the original doctrine of Hindustan; but that it probably superseded that of Budha, taking away the sanguinary rites of the ancient founder, and substituting milder and more humane injunctions; while it was, perhaps, equally injurious to society, by establishing the doctrine of casts and an artful hierarchy, whose injurious influence is still felt. Even in the volume before us, independently of the present article, there are many passages of the ancient history of Hindustan, in which there are no traces of the influence of casts. The Bramins seem, from this account, joined with lieutenant Wilford's very accurate researches, to have migrated from Egypt.

'If the conjectures of sir William Jones, relative to the inscriptions found at Mongheer, and on the pillar at Buddal, be well founded, then the governing power on the banks of the Ganges, as late as about the time of the birth of Christ, was of the sect of Bouddha. The Brahmens indeed had then introduced themselves into Hindustan, and had obtained lands, and even the rank of prime-minister to the great rajah: but they had not persuaded him to change his religion; a change which, when accomplished, proved equally destructive to the prince and to the people. However idle and ridiculous the legends and notions of the worshippers of Bouddha may be, they have been in a great measure adopted by the Brahmens, but with all their defects monstrously aggravated: rajahs and heroes are converted into gods, and impossibilities are heaped on improbabilities. No useful science have the Brahmens diffused among their followers; history they have totally abolished; morality they have depressed to the utmost; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the state and the rights of the subject. Even the laws attributed to Menu, which, under the form in use among the Burmas, are not ill suited for the purpose of an absolute monarchy,

under the hands of the Brahmens have become the most abominable and degrading system of oppression ever invented by the craft of designing men.' P. 165.

From the arguments and remarks adduced by our author, the influence of the Bramins appears nearly coeval with the birth of Christ; nor can the religion of Budha be traced, in any degree of prosperity, below the third, or, at most, the fourth, century. We cannot, however, wholly agree with Dr. Buchanan, that mankind have lost by the exchange. Human sacrifices were abolished; superstitious notions of the most absurd kind abrogated; and the Bramins had, at least, the merit of introducing the literature of Persia and Chaldæa. The astronomical and geometrical knowledge of the followers of Budha are at the lowest ebb; for the rahans are forbidden the study of astrology, which is the most important application of astronomy in these climes, and the Bramins artfully introduce themselves as soothsayers. We see many reasons to believe that the religion of Budha is on the decline in Birma, chiefly from the increasing influence of the Bramins as astrologers. The rebuilding Pegu, which seemed a wise and liberal measure, now appears to have originated from a superstition of this kind. The Bramins have not, however, succeeded in their plans of making the solar and lunar year coincide. The Birmas had twelve months in their year, each consisting of twenty-nine and thirty days alternately; but, like the modern French reformers, they found 'time hang on their hands,' and, every third year, an intercalary month was introduced. This, however, was not sufficient, and the Bramins occasionally wanted to introduce other intercalary moons, to make the solar and lunar year more nearly correspond; but the obstinacy of the rahans would yield no farther, and the festivals were held, at different times, in different parts of the empire. It is singular that, in this country, as with our peasantry, Friday is the most *unlucky* day. The astronomical science of the Bramins is not spoken of with great respect; and, if it be true, as hinted in a note, that the Bengal MSS. from the badness of the paper, must be copied every ten years, the suspicion added may be equally so, that each succeeding copy is either mutilated or interpolated by the copyist. The geography and cosmogony of the Birmas are beyond measure absurd. They fancy that the world consists of four vast islands; but the happiest situation they consider as the northern. There is some fancy in the description, and we shall transcribe it.

"The inhabitants of the northern island differ totally from those of the others; for they neither practise agriculture, commerce, nor any other profession. There grows in their island a tree called padeza-bayn, on which, in place of fruit, hang precious garments of every kind: so that from these trees the inhabitants are supplied with

all manner of cloathing. Neither have the inhabitants of Unchegru any need to cultivate the ground; as the same padeza-bayn produces a certain excellent kind of rice, which has no husk. Some of this rice, when the natives are hungry, they put on a certain kind of stone called zotrassa, which immediately of itself emits fire, and dresses the rice; and, as soon as this is done, the fire dies away. Whilst these people are eating their rice, various meats of the most exquisite flavour, according to the particular taste of each person, appear on the leaves and branches of the padeza-bayn. This food is of such a nature, substance, and nourishment, that what is prepared for one person would abundantly serve many; and after being eat, it takes away all sensation of hunger for seven days. When the repast is finished, the remains of their own accord disappear. From such a diet the natives of Unchegru never suffer any sickness; nor have they any inconvenience from old age, but live for a thousand years, happy and tranquil in continual vigour, always in their persons resembling youths of eighteen years.

"The manner in which these islanders contract marriage is remarkable. Women there are not subject to the common sexual infirmities, and bear their children without any pain. When their time comes, they bring forth their children in the streets, and there leave them. The children, though thus forsaken by their parents, do not die; for the passengers put the extremities of their fingers into the mouths of the infants, who from thence suck a most exquisite nectareous liquor, by which they are refreshed and nourished for seven days, in which time they become full grown. No one then knows his own relations; not only for the above-mentioned reason, but also because all the inhabitants of the northern island are of the same form and colour. Whenever therefore a man and woman struck with mutual love wish to contract marriage, they retire under the shade of a certain most agreeable kind of a tree. If they be not nearly related, this tree bends down its branches and leaves, covering them with a delightful bower, where they consummate their marriage: but if they be nearly related, the tree neither bends down its branches nor leaves: and they then, knowing their consanguinity, immediately abstain from any farther connexion. These islanders are not amorous; for they never perform the conjugal rites more than ten times: many abstain from them during the course of their whole lives; and many, after having performed them six or seven times, become, as if it were, perfect men and holy, who have overcome all their passions, and all the desires of their minds. For these reasons in this island no one weeps, no one grieves at the death of another: but as soon as a person dies, the body is deposited in a certain place, where very large birds, destined by fate for that purpose, carry it away to another part of the island, and there devour it. Although these islanders are thirteen cubits high, they are very handsome, especially the women, who excel in softness, suppleness, and elegance of limbs. They are of a golden colour, of which, as we have said, the whole island participates, from its being opposite to the golden side of Mienmo.

"This northern island, besides, is of all others the most agreeable. In it there is neither hot, nor cold, nor rainy season, nor is there any intemperance in the air. It contains no ferocious beasts, no serpents,

nor poisonous insects, that infest the life of man. Its happy inhabitants require no houses, but live their whole lives safe and tranquil in the open air. Every where it abounds with the most beautiful trees, of a golden colour, from whence hang, in profusion and variety, the most delicious fruits, and the sweetest scented flowers. The same trees pour forth most shining gums, which serve the natives for perfumed ointments. The whole island flows with streams of sandal-wood water, in which the natives sport and swim. But although these northern islanders thus excel the others in happiness, they are inferior to those of the south in courtesy, prudence, and cunning." Cunning among all the worshippers of Bouddha is esteemed a great virtue; and I much suspect, from the practice, that the doctrine of the simple Pundits, as sir William Jones is pleased to call them, has not in this point tended to improve the morals of their Hindu converts.' P. 183.

Dr. Buchanan's reflexions on the account given by the missionary, his instructor, on these subjects, we shall add:

'So far the missionary, on the astronomical and physical ideas of the Burma doctors; ideas which, I doubt not, were brought from Hindustan, along with their religion and laws. Such therefore, probably, was the astronomical doctrine, taught in that country, before the introduction of Brahmenical science, which, by all accounts, however deeply involved in fable, is much more perfect. I do not conceive it to have been the invention of Godama, or of those who in his name propagated a new religion, but to have been the common doctrine prevailing in Hindustan at the time: for the rahans seem to confine their studies almost entirely to theological, historical, moral, and political subjects. From the use of the same signs of the zodiac, there can be little doubt of their having derived at least that part of their astronomical knowledge from the Chaldeans; whose science may have in some degree reached India, nearly about the time of Godama, through the conquest of the Persians under Darius. But I do not think it likely that all the knowledge which the Hindus possessed in the time of Bouddha was derived from Babylon. It is true that the Persians shortly previous to this, as we learn from our best guide, Herodotus, were an extremely rude and ignorant nation: and we have very probable grounds given us by sir William Jones for believing that the Persians Proper were of the same nation with the Hindus. It might therefore be concluded, that in the sixth century, before the birth of Christ, the whole Hindu race were equally ignorant with their Persian brethren. Such reasoning would, however, I conceive, be inconclusive. Why might not the Hindus of Matura or Cashmere be as much superior to their countrymen of Persia as the Arabs of Nineveh or of Babylon were to the wanderers of the desert? But even allowing the Hindus to have been incapable of inventing science, might they not have received instruction from the east as well as from the west? Their eastern neighbours, at this time, had made very considerable progress; such, indeed, as enabled them, about this period, to produce a Confucius. But that the Hindus were themselves capable of observation, so as to make

advances in science, their undoubted invention of cyphers, in arithmetic, is a clear proof.' P. 194.

The Bramins smiled when it was supposed that they borrowed their astronomy from the Greeks; and, humbling as it must have been to the pride of Greece or her admirers, their opinion is that 'no base creature can be lower than a Yavan' (Greek). Dr. Buchanan thinks, nevertheless, that the science of astronomy was really borrowed either from the Greeks or the Chaldeans:—most probably, as we have already had occasion to observe, from the latter. Our author, who endeavours to raise the Birmas perhaps too highly in the scale, thinks that they are better acquainted with geography than has been supposed; and he fancies that he traces a true description of the sources of the principal rivers, which arise from the Imans, in their legendary writings, as abstracted by his friend the missionary. It is singular that the western island and the banks of the western river are said to abound in horses, the characteristic of Europe. The topography here adduced shows very clearly, in Dr. Buchanan's opinion, the spot in which the doctrines of Budha first commenced. Since it is more clear and correct as the account approaches to the north of Bengal, it is here that the legislature probably flourished; somewhere perhaps on the north-west of Benares.

The Birma account of the destruction of the world is equally whimsical; but it is not impolitic, in the legislator or the soothsayer, to inculcate the idea that the happiness or misery of the people depends on the virtues or vices of the sovereign. After the destruction of the old world, the new one is to be re-peopled by a singular artifice. The crust of the latter will resemble butter, both in taste and smell, and will hereby entice superior beings to taste and live on it. The religion of the Birmas is uncommon; it is a moral system, without the guidance or superintendance of a superior being, without the allurements or the terrors of future rewards or punishments; for Budha and the various other objects of worship are, in our author's opinion, human beings of either superior sanctity or benevolence. We find Dr. Buchanan, perhaps unintentionally, somewhat too eager in defence of this purely moral system. We suspect that its inducements or its prohibitions would not, in the more varied commerce of the world, either lead to virtue or repel from vice; nor do we believe that its influence is sufficient for either purpose even in Birma. We mention this circumstance to guard against the effects of expressions, which, though perhaps accidental, recur too frequently. The religion of the Bramins our author admits to be of Egyptian origin, and like it allegorical; but the religion of Budha is of a different nature, and of an earlier æra. That either the former or the latter was introduced

by Sesostris he thinks improbable; but the persecution of the Egyptian priests, by Cambyses, may have rendered the religion of Brahma more general in Hindustan. It is, however, highly probable that it was of much greater antiquity.

The religion of the Birmas is considered at some length, prefaced by a short disquisition respecting the different names of Godama, and the various countries in which his doctrine, either pure or mixed with Braminical interpolations, subsists. If there be any divinity whom the Chinese worship, it is seemingly Budha. Of the religion itself, or of the author's ingenious notes, we can offer no abstract that would be intelligible, and we must refer to the volume itself.

The remarks on the priesthood are curious. The rahans are represented as learned, humble, and useful in many capacities. They are eager to make proselytes, but not, on this account, intolerant: they have no share in religious ceremonies, but employ themselves in improving their own minds, instructing others, and providing for their own wants, as well as those of the poor, by begging; not indeed by importunity, for it is only necessary for them to appear, to have every refreshment placed in their basket. They are forbidden even to cough, lest it should seem to solicit attention. The religion of Budha has also its faquirs (*ss-ges*), those miserable beings who think they acquire sanctity by voluntary pain. They are not of the Braminical order, and are very different from the rahans or samanians, with whom they have been confounded. Many of Dr. Buchanan's descriptions of the temples and ceremonies of the Birmas have been anticipated by major Symes; and, if we recollect rightly, he also suspects that the Birmas received their religion through Ceylon, by way of Arracan. China, it is said by Dr. Buchanan, has obtained it from Hindustan, by way of Thibet, at least those who have adopted the tenets of Gaudma, and communicated them to the Siamese. Our author will not, however, admit, with sir William Jones, that the Chinese and Siamese are of Hindu race, because of the same original faith. The institutes of Menu in Birma are very different from those of Hindustan: these are at least 600 years old, for it is so long since they were received from Siam; but it is difficult to prove that the latter are of half that antiquity. Of the histories of the Birmas we may expect some future account from our author; of their proficiency in medicine we have no high expectations, from what Dr. Buchanan relates. They are acquainted with the use of mercury in the venereal disease, but employ it in the form of fumigation from burning cinnabar. If a young woman be ill, the doctor is paid for his attendance by taking her, if she live, as his property; if she die, he pays her value to her parents. Their character is the Pali, resembling the Sanscrit; and there is no doubt that all the different

characters of India have been derived from one common source. Of their poetry and dramatic entertainments, and of their modes of writing, several short descriptions are introduced, but not of sufficient importance to detain us. The remaining articles of this work must be referred to another opportunity.

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ART. IV.—*Britannia: a National Epic Poem, in Twenty Books. To which is prefixed, a Critical Dissertation on Epic Machinery. By John Ogilvie, D.D. F.R.S. Edin.* 4*to.* No Publisher's Name. 1801.

BRUTUS, the traditionary founder of the British empire, so often propounded as the theme of epic song, has at length found a poet in Dr. Ogilvie. The story has many advantages; it is national, sufficiently known to awaken public interest, and sufficiently obscure to allow full liberty of invention. A poem so respectable in its appearance must be analysed at length.

Book I. The exordium is followed by an address to the genius of the island: her appointment to the charge with which she is invested, and her prophetic hope of better days, are concisely related. With the arrival of the expected civilisers the action of the poem thus commences:

> ' ———When now beneath th' effulgent beam
> Old Ocean flamed around, the genius scaled
> The cliff, far-famed, to Gallia's hostile shore
> Opposed, that far o'erlooks the flood below.
> High on its summit stood the heavenly power,
> And gave her green robe to the gale, and stretch'd
> Her wings expanded o'er th' abyss that flamed
> With waving radiance as they moved: her front
> A starry crown emblazed. The muse beheld
> The shape celestial, veil'd from mortal ken,
> She mark'd her port superior, and her eyes
> Far-beaming light ethereal, as the sun
> At morn, when peering from his cloud, illumes
> The blushing orient: At her feet she saw
> The trident lie; and in her hand, aloft
> The sceptre raised, whose powerful touch controuls
> Th' illimitable deeps. Sublime she tower'd,
> And o'er the world of waters look'd abroad
> In still suspense, and scann'd the void around.
> Long o'er the space she turn'd her piercing eyes,
> Sparkling with hope, and ardent to explore
> What first occurr'd. But undulating air,
> Or cormorant slow floating, as it seem'd
> In shade half lost, while rising on the surge,
> Bounded her wide survey.—At last a speck

Darken'd the blue horizon. By the winds
Borne onward, in advance it spread in view.
And now the white sail floating to the breeze
Stood eminent! and now the stately bark
Dashing the angry billows from her sides,
Tower'd o'er the watery waste. Anon the voice
Of long acclaim came murmuring on the wind,
And, full exposed, a mighty fleet, replete
With joyful mariners, approach'd the shore.
To heaven the guardian look'd elate, and dwelt
On future conquests, and unbounded reign.
'Still rose her transport, as in prospect near
Were seen the fathers of the British line;
A generous people, hardy, daring, free,
By ills unbroke; advancing to the land
That, echoing, hail'd the sovereigns of the main.
'High on the foremost ship, that brush'd the wave,
At hand, the leader of the glorious host,
Known by his gesture, and th' expressive look,
That, while it awes, yet pleases; took his stand
On the tall prow. His limbs in shining mail
Were cased. His face and ebon-tinctured hair
Stood full to sight displayed. Calm courage there,
And ardour rein'd by wisdom, by the voice
Of cool experience, sat. A dauntless front
The hero show'd; yet, as he view'd the throng,
He seem'd the father of a numerous race,
Eyeing his happy family with joy,
And mixt affection.' P. 58.

Brutus harangues his troops, doubtful whether they had reached the promised island. An omen encourages them; they muster upon the shore, Greeks and Trojans, a noble ancestry! —and the ladies of Britain may here trace their own charms to a Circassian origin. The guardian spirit meets them in a pastoral dress. From her they learn the name of the island, and that it is possessed by giants, the race of Polyphemus. The leading giants are individually characterised. Respecting these personages we must quote Dr. Ogilvie's dissertation.

'Although giants are, I believe, new to epic poetry, as principal actors on the scene, yet no apology is necessary for the introduction of these personages in the following work, nor for the great part which they maintain in the action. The giants of Britannia are not monsters of whom the existence exceeds credibility. On the contrary, I might have rendered them much more formidable than they are, under the sanction of the most respectable authority. Their magnitude and prowess are best known when they meet their enemies in battle. Here it will be observed, that their superior stature and force, when compared with the soldiers of Brutus, are more than compensated by the rude construction of their arms, and by their

total ignorance of military discipline; disadvantages, of which Romerus is sensible, in his combat with Clitander, when

> ' ——————he felt how vain
> Untutor'd strength to match inferior power
> By skill directed,

and in many other parts of the work.

' In fact, however, my principal inducement, in adopting this part of Geoffry's narrative, was the occasion which it gave me of introducing new characters into the action: and the claim of Britannia to originality, if it has any, is derived from this circumstance. Common characters are too low for the epic muse; and those of distinguished eminence are pre-occupied so effectually by the great masters of antiquity, as to exclude original strokes, in an exhibition of ordinary men, from any work of their successors. By bringing giants upon the stage in the following poem, I had occasion to maintain the predominance of qualities that distinguish the savage, amidst others which derive a colour from this original, whereby they are always impressed. In Gerontes, the ferocity of the barbarian is united with latent timidity, and a sense of dependence, which he is ever solicitous to conceal. In his daughter Leontia, the same characteristic is conspicuous amidst female weaknesses and foibles. In Vortiger, the rude and unprincipled villain is possessed of deep cunning, native sagacity, and the fascinating power of giving to falsehood the semblance of truth. He has plausibility in discourse, cowardice in action, and the greatest moral pravity in both. It is attempted to display, in Androgeus, the effect of good principles, when called forth by the improvement of early education. Scarcely does any tincture remain in his conduct, whereby we are reminded of his companions, unless perhaps at the time when he is roused into indignation by the supposed injustice and ambition of his enemies. Lastly, an assemblage of qualities that distinguish the savage are united in Romerus, with almost unrivalled prowess, unshaken fortitude, an high sense of honour, and a native rectitude and dignity, which command the esteem of his enemies, and are supported uniformly to the last.' P. 48.

The spirit, having answered their queries and pointed out the city of the giants, disappears. Inspirited by this miraculous encouragement, Brutus burns the ships.

Book II. An uproar in hell recalls Satan from his solitary meditations. The fallen angel Azrael* had been missioned to prevent the arrival of Brutus in Albion. He now unexpectedly returns; his wings are torn; his front is gashed with wounds; while the lightning and the thunder are yet pursuing him. As soon as he recovers, he relates the events of his embassy. It appears that on the first emigration of the Trojan colony he had persuaded Pandrasus to give his daughter in marriage to Brutus, and thus attempted to fix them in Greece,—a plan which succeeded till

* The name is ill chosen. Jewish and Arabian fable have appropriated it to the angel of death.

the offspring of that marriage grew up and stimulated their father to seek a better fortune. Before his departure he consulted an oracle: Abdiel took possession of the shrine, and referred him to Sicily for an answer. The efforts of the evil angel were then directed to drive Brutus from the Sicilian coast. For this purpose he had invited the dæmons of the earth to aid them, a malicious race, sprung from the intercourse of the fallen angels with satyrs, sea nymphs, &c. With their assistance he had raised a storm; and whilst they were left to oppose Uzziel, the genius of the ocean, he had driven the fleet and adventurers to the island Cythera.

Book III. The relation of Azrael is still continued. In Cythera Venus is worshipped, but Asmodeus is the ruling deity; and under his influence the adventurers plunge into voluptuous enjoyments. Evander and the chief alone are uncontaminated. Uzziel warns them of their danger, and commands them to rouse their followers and depart. Brutus convenes the leaders—Dares and Evæmon reply to his speech—they urge the happiness they enjoy—the immediate command of Venus that they should remain—her wrath, and the wrath of Neptune, should they disobey. Evander answers them, and awakens in some of the assembly their old and honourable feelings; but Dares departs to the troops, and complains to them of the intention of their chief, and with their mutinous clamours the council breaks up.

Book IV. Uzziel ascends to heaven in anguish; and Ithuriel is commanded to summon the ministers of vengeance. Ormul, the angel of pestilence, obeys his call, and afflicts the islanders and the adventurers, till the surviving chiefs repent, confess their fault, and depart for Sicily. Desperate at this, Azrael rushes to combat Uzziel, at which moment a thunder-bolt smites him to hell. Here ends his narrative; and Satan dismisses him to warn the giants of Albion against their approaching enemy.

Book V. The genius of the island appears in a vision to Albanus, the leader's youngest son, and bids him volunteer with Eugenius to explore the country. Brutus accepts their offer; and they set forth, with a band of followers. Meantime Azrael has arrived in Britain, after a long journey by way of South America. He sees Albanus, and assumes the form of the prince-giant Gerion to spread the alarm. This is the first appearance of this monstrous people.

> 'Long, in the spacious woodland's gloomy range,
> A lordly bull, the monarch of the waste,
> Had held supreme dominion. Round him grazed
> In peace, while uproar was abroad, a train
> Of lowing heifers, and a numerous race
> Obsequious to his lead: while from his roar,
> When heard remote, and from the spreading horns
> O'ershading his broad front, and to the foe

Portending instant fate, when seen at hand,
The savage tenants of the desart fled
Oer'aw'd. Ev'n in his walk, the giants shunn'd
To meet this sovereign of the wild, untamed,
In native fierceness. Him Romerus seized,
And pushing backwards, while he held his horns
With might superior, stretch'd him on the soil:
Then to his dire companions show'd the corse,
All round him grimly smiling, as a prize.
'Soon at the festal board, the savage chiefs
Convened, where now the victim lay prepared
To sate their appetite:—a lawless band!
Recounting various, as they gorged their prey,
What deeds each powerful arm achiev'd in fight,
Clamorous, and dissonant. Romerus sole,
Reclin'd in sullen majesty, beheld
The rout indignant; for untaught to boast
Of deeds, tho' great to meet the mightiest foe,
He heard the war of words with just disdain.
'Thus sat Gerontes with his fierce compeers;
When, breaking sudden on the noisy crew,
Bold Gerion came in sight.' P. 187.

Enraged at the tidings, Gerontes is for rushing at once upon the 'pigmy legions:' but the wily Vortiger advises an ambush to surprise them: their capture, he pleads, will intimidate the army, and allow time to assemble their forces, and summon Androgeus with his Albians to the war. Accordingly Vortiger hides his troop in a cavern, and proceeds himself to decoy Albanus, who has now, with Eugenius, advanced beyond his comrades.

'Now, near the forest's utmost bound arrived,
Scenes yet unknown arose; unlike whate'er
Had met their sight; not void of art, tho' wild,
And of extensive range. A mighty space,
Fenced with a rampart, and encircling fosse,
They first beheld. Domes of capacious frame,
And height unequall'd, fill'd the fence within.
Rough hides, the spoils of many a slaughter'd foe;
Wolves, foxes, boars, and prey of gentler kind,
O'erspread the roofs, and form'd their sole defence
From showers rude rushing, or inclement skies.
What framed their sides, the rampart held unseen.
'Twas now the welcome hour, when spent with toil,
The savage people in their homes partook
The feast, and stretch'd on earth, supinely dosed,
'Till eve recall'd them to the work of death,
With hearts unsated, and destructive hands.
Hence nought annoy'd the warriors in their search:
For now the noise subsiding to a calm,
The youths approach'd, tho' yet with wary step,
And mark'd with prying eyes what rose in view.

'Around the fortress spread a spacious field,
Clear'd of its wood; but o'er its smooth expanse,
No swelling ridge, or furrows, tho' defaced,
Announc'd old culture, or the ploughman's song;
Nor rose, nor violet dropping balmy dew,
O'erspread the plain; but bones and smoking gore
Reveal'd a barbarous rout. Confusedly thrown
In heaps, the spoils of beasts, their constant dread,
Lay scatter'd loosely o'er the region:—here
A carcase half devour'd, and there a head,
With tusks still grinning, and extended jaws.
'Silent and unobserved, the warrior chiefs
Explored the fence at hand. The rampart's height,
Not without wonder seen, a while engaged
Their thoughts; the fosse of wide extent, and depth
Immense, they measured with their sight, and judged
From all what people fill'd the space within.
No part half-finish'd, or decay'd, exposed
Access to strong assault, save where the stream
Form'd for the void behind a watery mound:
For thence they dreaded less th' approach of foes,
That, ravenous, held their nightly walk around,
In quest of prey, or, from invading hosts,
A sudden onset. Such the works appear'd.' P. 195.

Vortiger unexpectedly falls in with the troops of Albanus just as that prince had returned to them. He persuades them to advance, and then calls on his giants. Albanus kills one of them, and retires skirmishing. Succours from the camp repel Vortiger.

Book VI. Brutus prepares for battle. The giants also resolve on war, to revenge their slain comrade. Azrael, in giant-shape, announces that Androgeus and the Albians are on the way to their assistance. They determine to wait one day for their arrival; but, before the expiration of this time, the impatience of Romerus makes them commence the fight. In his own station Romerus is successful; but, in the other wing, Locrinus defeats the giants, and Romerus is borne away in their flight.

Book VII. Androgeus, with his Albians, arrives, determined not to engage in the war till he has tried the success of negotiation. In the sight of both armies he calls Locrinus to a conference, which is broken off by the violence of Gerontes and Camber, whom Dr. Ogilvie has characterised as easily irritated. Androgeus signalises himself in the battle; and spares the life of Phraortes, though the youth had wounded him. Brutus, who till now had abstained from the fight, advances to oppose the civilised giant. The dæmons join Gerontes, and Moloch engages the guardian angel of the island.

'———— Darkness veil'd
The scene from mortal eyes:—alone were heard

Sounds, as of fierce defiance, and the blast
That sweeps, when pent within an hollow vale,
And bears the forest on its wing.—The deep
Felt o'er its void th' encounter, and the hills
Shook on their base.—And now Britannia's queen
Unsheath'd her sword amid the solar orb,
Drench'd deep, and streaming with its purest ray.
Th' Infernal mark'd his fate, and from its edge
Shrunk back in terror, dropt his borrow'd form
In haste, and shrieking wild, resumed his own.
'As when two clouds, with elemental flame
Impregn'd, on heaven's aërial concave mix
In night portentous; and the solemn peal,
Slow-rolling o'er the void, proclaims their war
By dreadful intervals! while all beneath
Shakes at each blast, and mortals deem the Lord
Of Nature rising in his wrath:—such seem'd
To these the conflict!—Short, though dire. The fiend
Wheel'd down the whirlwind loose, with flagging wing
Flew devious. Earth receiv'd him, and conceal'd,
Nor long the power superior deign'd to search
What cavern held her foe, nor stay'd to boast
Her easy conquest. To the scene of fight
Again she turn'd her course; and all intent
To work th' Eternal's high behests, restored
O'er heaven's illumin'd arch the golden day.' P. 257.

Book VIII. Brutus and Androgeus meet and parley in the battle: their combat is prevented by Megistheus, who comes to revenge the supposed death of Phraortes. Phraortes himself separates them; and thus the generous character of the giant is made known to the Trojans. Meantime Locrinus has pursued his revenge too far; and the genius is obliged to recal him to resist Romerus, who is slaughtering the invaders. Locrinus attacks and wounds him; and night puts an end to the conflict.

Book IX. A Cretan bard arrives from Mona to visit Brutus. He announces danger, and ultimate success. Satan brings from hell the fiend Despair, whom he conceals in Britain. He appears among the giants, when Androgeus had almost persuaded them to peace, and, by the promise of celestial aid, encourages them again to battle. Androgeus, though suspicious of the appearance, consents to resist them in one more action.

Book X. Albanus and Eugenius are sent to command an ambush in the forest. Before the battle begins, Azrael assumes the form of Alcestes, and advises Locrinus to provide for the safety of his Almeria, in case the savages should attack the camp. He offers to conduct her to a cavern; but desires that Locrinus himself will tell her to follow him when he calls. Deceived by the fraudulent counsel, Locrinus leaves the

field. The fight begins. Satan himself inspires Romerus; but retires discomfited by the eye of God.

Book XI. Leontia attacks the Lydians, and kills their prince Evæmon. Azrael takes this occasion to alarm Almeria, and summon her to fly. He conducts her far into the forest, and then disappears. After long wandering, she swoons; but her guardian angel protects her, recovers her, and, in the form of a shepherd, leads her to a druid.

Book XII. The battle continues, and Leontia is slain by Camber.

Book XIII. Gerontes attacks Camber, to revenge his daughter's death. The young prince encounters, notwithstanding Evander's advice, the Nestor of the poem. On this side the giants are victorious; but they dare not attempt to force the camp—and now heaven permits the evil spirits to act unrestrained. Azrael, in the arms of an Albian, defies Locrinus, and irritates him by saying that he has slain Alcestes and taken Almeria: thus taunting and retreating in fight, he leads the hero from the field. Night approaches, and both armies keep their ground.

Book XIV. During the night, Albanus, Eugenius, and Arimon, go towards the camp of the Albians, in hope of taking a prisoner. They seize Trigontes, brother of Segonax the chief: From him they learn the Albian history—that Androgeus first preserved them from the fury of the invading giants, then adopted their arms and manners, and led them away from the servitude which they endured. He describes also the religion of the native islanders.

" Know, mighty leaders, then, that we, removed,
In this lone region, from the abodes of men,
Own but one Power Supreme; and in our groves
Adore great Esus. To the God, we deem
One sacred tree devoted; and beneath
The oak's broad boughs assembling, bid the voice
Of music, from the lute's melodious strings,
Ascend to heaven.—A priest of spotless mind,
By Nature's Lord distinguish'd, and apprised
Of counsels to a chosen few reveal'd,
Tells, from the consecrated round, his will
To all th' attending tribes. Th' inferior train,
Each honour'd with the oak's unfolding flower,
The misletoe revered, raise the glad voice
In hymns divine, to Nature's sovereign Lord;
And slay the *milk-white heifer* at the shrine,
While heav'n accepts the sacrifice: nor these
Alone direct the mystic rites, or speak
The will of Esus. Near the altar stand
A virgin band, pure, even in thought, from ill;
Who, in the victim's reeking entrails, mark
The fate of battles, and the warrior's doom.

Rear'd in the hallow'd grove, they pass their days
In peaceful calm; nor, but when wrath divine
Impends, or peril seems at hand, appear
To utter, heaven-inspired, their Lord's command,
Or give the future breath.—'Twere vain to tell
Of what we boast, in science, or in arts,
To have discover'd: of the lunar orb,
With her bleak mountains, continents, and seas,
Brought full in sight by our enlighten'd seers,
And known to them alone; of future worlds
Unveil'd, and scenes that open on the mind
Released from matter by the welcome hand
Of fate; of chastisement, or due reward
That wait impartial in a life to come
On bold impiety, or virtuous deeds,
Delay'd, not cancell'd: on those themes the time
Forbids enlargement. Yet 'tis meet to know,
That, as his first command, our heaven-taught chief
Enjoins to follow, even when perils press,
The right unbiass'd, and to shun the wrong.
Hence, in our martial bands, though now they seem
In hostile guise assembled, ye behold
The friends of truth and virtue; not averse,
Should your prevailing voice assail with power,
And gain Androgeus, in his secret heart,
Perhaps inclined to bend a haughty race,
Though not as weeds that choke the springing flowers,
To rase them from the soil; to join your host
In every noble purpose that inspires
Your thoughts, and animates your labouring hands." P. 436.

Trigontes accordingly promises to negotiate with Androgeus and the Albians, and win them over to the Trojan alliance.

Book XV. At day-break the battle is renewed, with ill success to the Trojans. Brutus parleys with Androgeus, who is half persuaded by his reasons, when Satan breaks off their conference, darkens the field, and prepares for the decisive prodigy. As this is, in the author's own judgement, the boldest personification of the poem, it must be quoted.

'———————'Twas then
That hell's dread monarch wrapt the warring hosts
In preternatural night; and when the day
Broke forth, prepared his last decisive blow.
For now exulting, as a toil-worn crew
That mark the shores in sight, he deem'd his work
Now near its close; and rising on the void
Of air, held onward to the cavern drear
His flight, where lay the hell-born pest, secured
With bars of adamant. Deep in the den
She sunk, close-lock'd; yet there such fiery rays,
Such living sparkles shot, and shriek'd so wild,

Still as she turn'd, that even the savage race,
The shagged people of the waste, forsook
Their haunt, and, howling, left th' unfinish'd prey.
'With his great purpose swell'd, th' infernal king
Sail'd through the gulph. He burst the chains that held
The shape inthrall'd; and in her double screen,
Undaunted, bore her to the light!—He seem'd,
While yet beheld afar, a cloud impregn'd
With storms, that, by the labouring winds impell'd,
O'erspreads the northern hills, and slowly wraps
In night the void horizon:—but, at hand,
Prone from his dark retreat the fiend descends;
And now alighting, where the Trojan bands
Stood pale and disarranged, in act to fly,
Full in the midst he placed his dire compeer,
As yet unknown; and waving, ere he show'd
Her form, his wings to bear him from the scene,
Removed th' exterior fence; and left the shape
To spread foul rout and terror all around.
'Though shrouded half from sight, th' infernal, new
To day, within her covert, felt the beam
Of heaven's bright orb, and heaving, raised her eyes,
Then first from night expanding, to the ray
That thrill'd her shivering frame. Backward she shrunk,
Of light abhorrent, while from every nerve
Starting, and tremulous, the darts of hell
Though yet th' interior fence untouch'd remain'd,
Innumerous flew, and scatter'd o'er the host
Pangs till that hour unfelt:—not on the head
Of him, who sails beneath the burning line,
The penetrating fay that to the brain
Shoots instant death, with surer aim pervades
The seat of life, than from her blasting eyes
The flames that lighten'd, scatter'd plagues and woe.
'Pale, trembling, horror-struck, the host around
All wither'd as they gazed. But, when again
She rear'd her eye-lids, yelling, as she felt
Heaven's genial beam;—the blood-congealing sounds
Quench'd the last rays of hope: they shriek'd, they fled
Where terror drove them, headlong; every care
Of leader, conquest, friend, and sire, forgot:
Th' exulting foes behind them, shouting loud
As conquerors now; and in their rear the fiend.' P. 465.

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'If it should be asked, with what purpose I have made use of this prosopopœïa, in order to accomplish the defeat of Brutus's army, I answer, that I complied, in following this course, with a principle that was laid down in the beginning of the essay, and which has been kept in view throughout the whole of it; that 'animation' ought at all times to pervade every poetic description; and that this is the essential characteristic whereby the work of a poet is distinguished from the plain narration of an historian. Let me add, that it is more

necessary to support this poetical style in a work executed in blank verse, than in rhyme, however melodious: for, we have seen that in the latter, musical cadence may conceal, in many cases, the defect of creative imagination; whereas, in the former, it is only by uniform exertion, and continued energy, that this faculty can maintain the genuine poetic idiom, untainted by intermixtures that debase its excellence.' P. 48.

Thus far is permitted to the fiend—thus far, but no farther. His shape has hitherto been concealed from Brutus, who yet maintains the combat; Albanus arrives with the reserve—the spirit of the island herself attacks the monster.

'——————— The guardian queen
Approach'd the fury. On th' ethereal frame,
Pure elemental air, the darts that shot
From every quivering nerve, were shower'd in vain.
New to the shape, she mark'd it; and aside
Turn'd her refulgent eyes, while thus she spoke
Averse:—"Thou inmate of the darkest shades
Of hell, descend; and may the gulph of fire
For ever wrap thee!"—On the rocking ground,
Thus as the guardian said, she launch'd her spear.
It burst!—The smoke in spiry volumes roll'd
Black through the void; and, far remote, the wail
Of misery resounded. Stooping low,
She seiz'd the Pest, and dash'd her quick to hell:
One parting yell she raised; but, ere it spread
Abroad, the frame of earth resumed its form,
And closing sudden, wrapt her from the view.' P. 472.

Androgeus supports the giants reluctantly and without energy: the victory, therefore, inclines to the Trojans when the day closes.

Locrinus arrives at the druid's cell; and the two following books are occupied with a vision of the history of England. Will epic poets never be ashamed of imitating these despicable fictions?

Book XVIII. The relation given by Trigontes of his conference with the Trojans decides Androgeus. He concludes a truce with Brutus of four days, to bury the slain. The dæmons break this truce, appearing to Gerontes in the shape of Leontia, and to Romerus as his son, who had fallen in battle, and urging them to revenge. Vortiger invents a plan to deceive Androgeus, and induce him to join their attack; proposing, after the Trojans are defeated, to destroy him and the Albians. He sends Cambus into the Albian camp at night, directing him, after he has slain many of them, to leave a sword. The Albians, finding the sword, attribute the massacre to Brutus; and a herald is therefore sent to reproach him for perfidy, and challenge him to battle. But Camber recognises the sword as having belonged

to a youth whom Leontia had slain, and whose spoils had been carried off by Gerontes. At this point of time an uproar is heard.

'Amid the sounds Locrinus' name was heard
From mingling voices. All impatient, rush'd
As with one spirit from the tent. They cast
Their eyes abroad, when, lo! the man divine,
Girt with a stranger band, again appear'd,
Splendent in flaming mail! From the black wood
He burst, like Cancer, when his fiery hair
Shakes living sparkles through the night: Before
His breast Zelohim spread th' ethereal shield,
And on his plumes, amid the solar blaze
That waved with trembling radiance, terror sat,
Appalling every heart!—He mark'd the sons
Of Albion arm'd for fight, and in their front
Beheld his native troops, from him disjoin'd
By interposing hosts, and coop'd within
Their camp inglorious. O'er the field he raised
His voice All Albion, turning, caught the sound
So known, and shrunk before him as he came!' p. 570.

Book XIX. Brutus directs Locrinus against the giants;—the Albians and Trojans engage; but their warfare is suspended. Cambus, wounded by Locrinus, promises to reveal an important secret; his life therefore is spared; and the prince attacks and kills Gerontes, whose forces, now overpowered, fly to their fortress.

Book the last.—By the advice of Androgeus, terms are proposed to Romerus, now the leader. He indignantly rejects the offer, resolved to revenge his friends or perish. The fortress is stormed; and Romerus, exhausted with wounds, dies in the ruin of his nation.

Dr. Ogilvie has given his nomenclature too classical a cast. The familiar name Locrine had been better than Locrinus; and Greek denominations are bestowed indiscriminately on the soldiers of Brutus and the giants. Their descent from Polyphemus is ill-supposed, as they are never described to be of the Cyclops genus, nor is their stature of that enormous bulk. Without examining the general question of machinery, we may object to that adopted in the Britannia. An agency is employed contrary to the faith of both parties: paganism is the religion of both the Trojans and the giants; and yet the Jewish powers of light and darkness are engaged in their defence. This produces an unpleasant incongruity. The versification however is throughout sonorous and well-paused. It is saying little to add, that the Britannia is not inferior to any one of the numerous works of the same class which have lately made their appearance.

'Whatever may be its fate, (says the poet) I shall always reflect with pleasure on the many solitary hours that passed away while I was

occupied in composing Britannia, in an amusing and innocent gratification, which suspended the recollection of the past, and heightened the enjoyment of the present. Herein perhaps consists the principal advantage of poetical propensity. Under great calamities, it is indeed crushed and overpowered; but, under *lesser* ills, it can steal away the mind, at least during a season, from unpleasing remembrance, and tranquillise the agitated spirit by consolations, of which it is easier to feel than to describe the effect.

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'The author of Britannia is now arrived at a time of life when the objects that cultivate young minds lose in a great measure their fascinating qualities. Yet, far from being an indifferent spectator on the present occasion, he will wait the decision of the public with anxiety, and will receive it with respectful acquiescence. To the reader he would only observe, respecting the execution of the work, that, in a subject so comprehensive as is that of an epic poem, there must be considerable variety; and where much variety obtains, he will probably meet with some entertainment.' P. 52.

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ART. V.—*A Journey into Cornwall, through the Counties of Southampton, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, and Devon: interspersed with Remarks, Moral, Historical, Literary, and Political. By George Lipscomb.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. *Boards.* Rivingtons.

THIS tour commences at Portchester Castle; and our traveller passes successively to Southampton, Rumsey, Ringwood, and Salisbury, returning through Lymington to Ringwood. He then proceeds to Blandford, and to the west, through Sherborne, to Exeter, Oakhampton, Tavistock, and Plymouth. He enters Cornwall on the southern side, but descends no lower than St. Austle; returning through Leskard, St. Germains, Plympton, (including a short excursion to Buckland) Totness, Exeter, Axminster, Charmouth, Bridport, Dorchester, Salisbury, and Basingstoke to London.

It will be obvious to every inquirer, that this road, so often traversed and so frequently described, can offer little novelty, excepting as to some few points with which former travellers have been less acquainted. A mineralogical tourist, for instance, in this tract of country would reap a valuable harvest, and a botanical tourist not much less. This we can say from a late cursory survey of the same route. It is not our intention, however, to consider that as a fault in Mr. Lipscomb which made no part of his plan. We mention these circumstances as hints for other travellers; and as to the present work, shall confine ourselves to its execution.

The descriptions were originally communicated in private letters, and were much more copious. Our author has very judiciously changed the form, and compressed his materials into

a moderate bulk. The accounts are sufficiently full; and, in general, very accurate. Without the affectation of sentiment, of brilliant ornament, or splendid metaphors, Mr. Lipscomb endeavours to communicate, with ease and freedom, the impression which different objects made on his mind; and as the hue which colours every scene is that of the medium through which it is surveyed, so the present is neither too gloomy nor too bright. He seems willing to receive pleasure from every thing calculated to communicate it, and has represented it accordingly in a pleasurable view. Those who have admired the warm descriptions of some travellers, whose objects often glow with a brilliancy of colouring not their own, may think some of his descriptions conveyed too coldly; and some of the inhabitants of these charming counties may consider him as insensible of rural beauties, which their prospects so frequently display. In fact, if he have any very striking fault, it is a want of that animation which picturesque scenery is calculated to excite; and, while he does justice to the landscape, it seems seldom to have warmed his fancy or inspired his language.—We shall add one or two specimens of his descriptions on different departments. We were well pleased with the account of the improvements in Salisbury cathedral, and shall transcribe the passage.

'On entering the church you are struck with the uncommon elegance of the fine light shafts which support the roof; these pillars are of brown stone, but the ceiling is painted in a very unbecoming manner, to represent brick-work whitened over, and the interstices marked with green lines. The monuments of many distinguished persons have been removed from their original situations, and placed at regular distances in the intervals between the pillars which separate the side aisles from the body of the church: among them are several tombs brought from Old Sarum at the foundation of the new cathedral. These are principally of knights templars who fell in the time of the crusades.

'Near the west end is a small stone figure of a boy, clad in the episcopal habit, and lying under an iron grating. The Salisbury Guide informs us that this was a chorister, who, according to an annual custom formerly observed here, was ceremoniously installed, and invested with a jurisdiction over the other choristers of the church, like that of a bishop over his clergy; and happening to die during the continuance of his office, this monument points out the place of his interment.

'There is a brown marble in memory of lord Stourton, who was executed for murder in the reign of Philip and Mary; and it is said, that a long time elapsed before his relations could obtain the favour of having the silken halter with which he was hanged removed from his monument.

'Here is also the dormitory of sir Thomas Gorges, whose wife, Helen Snachenberg, countess dowager of Northampton, built Longford Castle; and the figures of Prudence, Justice, Temperance, and Fortitude, with their proper symbols, are placed at the corners.

Many of the bishops of this diocese are buried in the cathedral, and some of the prelates of Old Sarum: and indeed the sepulchral monuments are so numerous, that one cannot view these gloomy monitors without a mixture of awe and humility.

"The grave has eloquence; its lectures teach,
In silence, louder than divines can preach."

'His present majesty has presented the chapter with a very handsome organ, which is placed over the entrance of the choir. The value of this princely gift was enhanced by the manner in which it was conferred. The king having made many inquiries respecting the alterations carrying on, and the further improvements designed, understood that the fund was nearly exhausted, and that the expence of an organ was to be defrayed by a voluntary contribution of the gentlemen of Berkshire and Wiltshire (two counties within the diocese): "Allow me then," said his majesty, "as a Berkshire gentleman, to subscribe 1000*l.* towards your design;" which was accordingly done.

'The earl of Radnor gave some fine painted glass windows; one, of the elevation of the brazen serpent in the wilderness, is very finely executed.—Among other improvements, three small chapels at the east end have been added to the choir; so that the altar is now removed further back. Within the communion rails the pavement is of black and white marble, very highly polished. The eastern window, immediately over the altar, represents the resurrection: the drapery and the circumvolutions of glowing clouds are finely expressed; and all the light introduced appears to come from the countenance of our Saviour, which, at the same time that it dazzles the eye by its refulgence, has an appearance of the most serene benignity. This window, as well as the one before mentioned of the elevation of the brazen serpent, was executed by the ingenious Mr. Pearson.

'The other windows are of stained glass, in small squares and compartments, affording a degree of light that greatly tends to dispose the mind to reverence and seriousness.

'A proper quantity of light, duly admitted, seems to be one of the principal points which constitute perfection in buildings appropriated to religious purposes: but although the effect produced by an attention to this circumstance is very obvious, it seems frequently, and indeed almost always, neglected in our modern churches; which have generally a glare vastly unpleasant to the eye. The stalls are elegantly carved, and painted brown; the canopy and curtains belonging to the bishop's throne are of purple silk, and the back of his chair is covered with velvet of the same colour.' P. 59.

To the scenery of the New Forest, and various views in the road from Southampton and the neighbourhood of Stony Cross, our traveller is not sufficiently alive; yet, in the following description he rises above his usual style, and, with the help of Thomson, is even poetical:

'The most beautiful part of the forest which I have seen is south-

west and west of Lyndhurst: there it is a perfect grove. The majestic oak, the comely beech, and the spruce holly, arising from a turf of the liveliest green, afford a complete shelter to the numerous herds of deer with which this country abounds, and admit just light enough to set off the picture to advantage.

'I saw in one place a perfect amphitheatre, covered with turf, verdant as eternal spring; solemn oaks forming a kind of magic circle, and different openings affording a transient glimpse of the circumjacent country, where neat white cottages are frequently interspersed among the forest trees. In the centre was a pool of water, in which stood several fine heifers, while others were reclining for shade under the beech trees upon its banks, in all the luxury of rural and romantic beauty, so elegantly described by Thomson.

> "On the grassy bank
> Some ruminating lie; while others stand
> Half in the flood, and, often bending, sip
> The circling surface. In the middle droops
> The strong laborious ox, of honest front,
> Which incompos'd he shakes; and, from his sides,
> The troublous insects lashes with his tail,
> Returning still."

'Eastward of Lyndhurst the forest is less pleasing;—arid, bleak, lonely, tremendous bogs, roads almost obliterated by the heath, or lost from disuse. Here is a custom of placing index posts without any inscription, pointing to the bogs esteemed dangerous; but they are of little advantage to the stranger, who scarcely knows which spot it is intended he should avoid. The greenest turf, however, is most suspicious; and wherever appears a spot remarkably verdant, it almost always, in this part of the New Forest, covers a bog "unfathomably deep." We were near some of these places; but those who wish to visit the interior parts of the forest are usually prudent enough to engage an inhabitant of one of the neighbouring towns as their guide.' P. 79.

The account of Cuffnels is short, but the description is pleasing. As it has lately been the temporary residence of royalty, and proclamations may yet appear 'from our court at Cuffnels,' we might copy the short account of it: other circumstances, however, will render it sufficiently famous; so that we shall pass it, as well as Milton Abbey, the seat of lord Dorchester, and Bryanstone Park, near Blandford, that of Mr. Portmore.

The reflexions at Oakhampton castle were, we thought, somewhat misplaced. When we visited it, a ruder scene we scarcely remembered; and the observations here introduced are calculated for an elegant retirement in a cultivated scene, chiefly because the author suspects it was intended for secluded ease rather than the turbulence of war. We were somewhat disappointed also with the description of Mount Edgcumbe, which is very imperfect, and conveys no adequate idea of some of the most captivating scenery in Europe, independently of a prospect

in many respects beautiful and interesting.—We shall add one description more of a different kind.

'It was with infinite difficulty that we explored the road. I have observed that the night was approaching before we left Lestwithiel; and we had not proceeded more than three miles before we were enveloped in total darkness,—the rain descended in torrents—the wind howled through the craggy hollow valleys; and the streamlet, which was accustomed to ribble [*ripple*] gently from the hills, now, augmented to the furiousness of a cataract, disdained its wonted limits, and rushed down the steep with the most awful impetuosity. To add to the horrors of this tremendous night, the rattling peals of thunder seemed to shake the very ground under our feet, and were re-echoed from the neighbouring mountains, and the mines beneath them.

——"The desert trembles wide around,
And repercussive hills repeat the sound."

"The gath'ring tempest now with horror teems,
Through the dread gloom the vivid lightning gleams:
Peal follows peal!—still nearer—and more near—
Contending clouds convey th' electric war.
Griev'd at the tempest (that to ruin sweeps
Her bounteous produce) gen'rous Nature weeps;
And, as the elemental warfare ends,
In whelming floods the pond'rous rain descends." DAVIS.

'My companion became extremely peevish at having left a place where some kind of shelter might have afforded us the prospect of a more comfortable night than we were likely to meet with in these inhospitable wilds: and I readily agreed with him to make the best of our way towards a glimmering light which seemed at a great distance from us on the right-hand side of the road. In attempting to get thither, however, we were near falling into a large lake or pool of water; and should inevitably have done so, if the clouds had not before been a little dispersed.

'The light was nearer than we expected, and proceeded from the window of a cottage where a number of persons had assembled for shelter from the rain, which still descended with great violence. After hallooing as loud as we could, for several minutes, the door opened, and a sturdy Cornishman made his appearance, with a rush-light in his hand; the candle was immediately extinguished by the wind, the man retired into the house, the door was closed, and we were left to our meditations, until the hospitable proprietor of the mansion had re-kindled his taper. We kept vociferating all the time as loud as we could, but to no purpose; for stentorean lungs would have been unable to out-noise the violence of the tempest, which was again increasing. The man at last, however, and just as I had turned my horse's head with an intention to proceed on our journey at all events, again opened the door. We requested to know if he could accommodate us with a lodging, and our beasts with shelter?—he said, he did not know, but would ask his wife. Before we could dismount he vanished a second time, shut the door upon us, and left us in a

worse humour and in a more uncomfortable situation than before; for, by this time, we were not only simply wet through all our clothes, but our boots, and every part of our furniture capable of holding water, was completely full of it.

'The reiterated claps of thunder terrified mine host out of the little remains of his understanding; for, when he returned to us, he remained speechless until we had repeated our former interrogatories, and accompanied them with an observation upon the dismal condition in which he had kept us drenched in the rain. The man answered, very coolly, that we might come in *an* we would, but, as for lodging, he had not *enough* for the people already in the house; "the horses," said he, "may *bide* in the yard."—I was out of all patience at this, and, without speaking a word more, turned about, and resolved to grope my way to St. Austle as well as I could. The rain at last abated, and the moon began to exert its influence; but the clouds were too thick for us to see the road.

'After great difficulty and fatigue, however, we approached St. Austle, lighted by the cottage tapers; while the gloominess of the scene was greatly increased by the solemn music of a full-toned bell, tolling for a funeral, and which brought to my recollection the following lines:

"Hark! from afar, I doleful music hear,
Sad, solemn sounds assail my list'ning ear.
Shrouded in darkness, not a gleam of light
Pierces the pitchy mantle of the night:
No voice is heard, but from th' age mould'ring tow'r,
Proclaiming grisly death's terrific pow'r.
Listen my soul! obey the solemn call,
The awful warning mercy sends to all.
This sound of death, this notice kind is giv'n,
That ev'ry hearer may prepare for heav'n." P. 244.

On the whole, we consider the account as faithful and pleasing. The reflexions are few, but just and appropriate; and we can safely recommend this work as a useful companion in a post-chaise, when pursuing the same route.

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ART. VI.—*Critical Remarks on the Hebrew Scriptures, &c. (Continued from p. 165 of the present Volume.)*

DR. Geddes, in p. 32, observes:

'Our cosmologist having, in the first chapter, traced, with a rapid but skilful hand, the whole plan of creation, resumes a part of his subject, and gives a more particular account of the creation of man. Here we still discover the wise and artful mythologist. He had already told us that man was made after the semblance and image of God, and that he was made male and female: but he had not told us how, or of what materials. The materials, he now tells us, were the dust of the ground; and that dust, being animated by God's

own breath, became a living person: first particularly in the creation of man, not mentioned in the former chapter.

'We are then told, that an abode, suitable to man's dignity, had been previously prepared for him; a paradise, or garden of pleasure, in which was every plant that could please the eye, or gratify the taste; and in the midst of the garden a tree, called the 'tree of life;' and another called the 'tree of the knowledge of good and evil.'—The fruit of this last tree man is forbidden to taste, under pain of immediate death, or at least of immediate mortality; but he may eat with freedom of all the rest.—A convention of all the terrestrial and aërial animals is now assembled by God, and presented to Adam, to whom he eagely gives appropriate appellations: but, in his survey of their natures and qualities, he finds no animal like himself. God sees his disappointment and distress; pities his solitary condition; throws him into a deep sleep; extracts one of his ribs, and fashions it into the form of a woman. This beauteous form Adam, on awaking, views with rapture, acknowledges to be his own counterpart; and, informed (no doubt by God) whence she had been taken, he exclaims: "This, now, is bone of my bone, and flesh of my own flesh! Woman let her be called; since out of man she was taken."

'Religious, but intelligent reader! wert thou to read all this in any book but the Bible, what wouldest thou think? Wouldest thou not think, and say, 'It is a pretty poetical tale;' and rank it in thine own mind with the metamorphoses of Ovid? Well, let me ask, What reason hast thou to believe that it may not be a poetical tale, even in the Bible? Are there no such tales there? Is every Bible-narrative literally true? He will be a hardy man, I think, who shall dare to affirm it.'

We cannot pass this apostrophe without a remark, as it presents a striking example of that inconsequence of conclusion into which the volatility of the doctor's fancy is so prone to betray him.

The position on which Dr. Geddes here founds his appeal is one that can never occur:—'Wert thou to read all this in any book but the Bible, what wouldest thou think?'—Surely not what the doctor takes for granted, 'that it is *a pretty poetical tale*, to be ranked with the metamorphoses of Ovid;' for no change of place could affect its original sense; but that it was a plain narrative, and of a piece with the context to which it belonged; a conclusion that the next question of Dr. Geddes himself anticipates—'Well, let me ask, what reason hast thou to believe that it may not be a poetical tale, even in the Bible?' To show that it is not one, a sufficient reason hath been assigned already; exclusive of which, however, the doctor's assumption would by no means follow, though his two ensuing questions were answered to his wish: for were it admitted that 'pretty poetical tales, to be ranked with the metamorphoses of Ovid,' did occur in the Bible, it is incumbent to show that the narrative in question is one of them: And granting that 'he would be a hardy man who should affirm every Bible narrative to be literally true,' he certainly

could be no logician who should thence infer that the Mosaïcal narrative of our first parents in paradise must therefore be no more than a pretty poetical tale, to be ranked with the metamorphoses of Ovid. In various parts of the New Testament it is alluded to as a simple and true history; and if St. Paul and Christ considered it as such, we will content ourselves with their sense of it instead of the doctor's, unless he can give us better reasons than he hath hitherto, for adopting his opinion.

Dr. Geddes says:—'We have already seen that not only the more learned of the Jews, but some of the most learned of the Christian Fathers, found it necessary, in their explanations of the hexaëmeron, to have recourse to allegory, in order to elude the strong objections of their adversaries against the Hebrew cosmogony;' and adds:

"Moses," said they, "speaks of a successive six days work, to suit the capacity of his people, and to give them a more distinct idea of every part of creation. It is contrary to the notions which we have of divine omnipotence, to say, that this is a literal historical narration, and that God left off, and resumed, his labour, every evening and morning, for six consecutive days, and at length reposed entirely on the seventh day. Such passages of Scripture ought never to be taken in their literal meaning, but should be considered as tropological representations." Such is the language of Origen, such the language of Austin, not to mention others of less learning and piety, who have either expressed their sentiments in similar terms, or laid down principles teeming with similar conclusions. And although the contrary opinion, of the other fathers, has been greatly followed by modern interpreters, it is not for that the more defensible, or more favourable to religion. For better, surely, allegorize with Austin and Origen, than admit a literal explanation, which, if what we are taught to believe concerning the nature and attributes of God be true, must necessarily be false.

'Both the fathers, just now mentioned, had to deal with acute and subtle adversaries; Origen with Celsus, Austin with the Manicheans. They were unwilling to give up the inspiration of the sacred books; but, as the objections pressed hard upon them, in the supposition that the narration was to be literally understood, they were obliged to elude their force by having recourse to allegory. "Who," says Origen, "is such a simpleton, ηλιθιος, as to imagine that God, like a husbandman, planted a paradise in Eden; or planted in it a tree of life, a visible and palpable tree; so that he who should, with his bodily teeth, eat of its fruit, should receive life; or that, eating of another tree, he should acquire the knowledge of good and evil? No one, I think, will have any doubt that these things, although apparently historical, are tropically to be understood, and indicate certain mysteries: *ουκ οιμαι δισταζειν τινα περι του αυτα τροπικως δια δοκουσης ιστοριας και ου σωματικως γεγενημενης, μηνυειν τινα μυστηρια.* Periarch. l. iv. N° 16." Severianus Gabalensis, who blushes for the allegorists, and bids them blush (*αισχυνεσθωσαν οι αλληγορουντες*), and explains every part of the creation literally, takes another way to

refute the objections made against it. He abuses the objectors; calls them blasphemers, infidels, and other harsh names. Yet he is often puzzled with the facts; makes queries to himself which he cannot answer; and grants principles that destroy his own assertions. And this is the general method of the other fathers who follow his mode of interpretation.

'My readers must not think, that, because I admire the ingenuity of those good fathers, in getting rid of troublesome objections by taking refuge under the shield of allegory, I therefore am satisfied with their allegorical system. I am altogether dissatisfied with it; and have brought it forward only to shew the difficulties that attend the Hebrew cosmogony, considered as a real history: difficulties that appear to me unsurmountable.

'But let it be once granted, that it is a mere poetical mythos, historically adapted to the senses and intellects of a rude unphilosophical people; every obstacle will be removed, every objection obviated, every sarcasm repelled; whether it come from a Celsus or a Porphyry, a Julian or a Frederic, a Boulanger or a Bolingbroke.' P. 32.

How this mythos of the doctor mends matters we are totally at a loss to apprehend; for though, according to the doctor's definition, a mythos be neither a literal relation nor an allegory, but something made up of both, unless he can furnish a key of what is literal and what figurative, ascertaining distinctly the limits of both, we are as much afloat as before. To do this, indeed, Dr. Geddes in one instance hath attempted; but with what precision or success our readers will judge:

'What then, may we suppose, had the writer in view, when he composed this part of his mythology? He had in view, I conceive, two important points: to mortify the pride without depressing the dignity of man; and to inculcate the strict and indissoluble union of man and woman in the matrimonial state. 'Man! (seems he to say) remember thine origin; thou wast formed of the dust of the ground; be therefore humble: but, man! remember also that that dust was animated by the breath of God, and after God's own likeness; debase not the divine image by brutal actions.' P. 33.

We see here, that, with the doctor, the whole is supposition; and that, on as good ground, we have a right to affirm that any other moral inference which this mythos might suggest were equally its object with the two important points Dr. Geddes has mentioned, notwithstanding they were drawn by St. Chrysostom himself.

'There might be [*have been*, however, says the doctor] another subordinate view in the account of the formation of woman; and in making that operation take place after Adam's review of the other animals; namely, the very great boon bestowed, in purposely framing for his aid and solace so suitable and lovely a companion as woman.—This is, precisely, the language of the apostle Paul, 1 Cor. 8. 9.

"For man came not from woman, but woman from man: nor was man created for the woman, but woman for the man." P. 34.

In the preceding passages it deserves to be remarked that both St. Chrysostom and St. Paul take the statements of Moses for literal facts; viz. that Adam was formed from the dust; and Eve from Adam; for, otherwise, their conclusions were absurd.

After a long recapitulation of opinions relative to the *four rivers of paradise*, (which passage after all has been recently maintained, from its incompatibility with the history of the deluge, to be no part of the text of Moses, but a marginal observation taken into it,) Dr. Geddes adverts to the *two trees* of *life* and of *knowledge*.

'But what was the tree of life?—According to the Hebrew idiom, any tree, or plant, bearing an wholesome or medicinal fruit, might properly enough be denominated a tree of life; as fresh, salubrious, running waters are termed waters of life. But the composer of this mythos must have had something more in view. His tree of life seems to have borne fruit of an extraordinary kind, by which the life of man might be prolonged, and his decaying health from time to time restored—I would not say for ever; for that were absurd; nor is it so much as hinted at by the author: but at least for a much longer time than has since been allotted to man. The delightful garden of Eden would have wanted something, if there had been wanting in it such a salutiferous plant: nor was the fruit of this plant interdicted from man, until after he had eaten of the fruit of the tree of knowledge: to which we must next turn our attention.

'It is called the tree of the knowledge of good and evil; that is, in Hebrew phraseology, every thing knowable. But why is the fruit of this tree forbidden to man? or, to speak more properly, Why does our author feign such a prohibition?—The question, I think, is not hard to be answered.' P. 40.

The doctor's solution follows:

'It is well known to politicians that the great bulk of mankind will rarely be kept in strict subordination, unless they be kept in a certain degree of ignorance. Neither the mysteries of state nor the mysteries of religion are to be too narrowly pried into. *Scrutator majestatis opprimetur à gloriâ*, Prov. 25. 27. I am aware that these words are only in the Latin Vulgate, and correspond not entirely with the original; but the maxim has been often inculcated, and is perfectly consonant with the general idea that mysteries are not to be searched into. Implicit faith and implicit obedience have always been considered, by legislators, as the best preservatives from innovations and revolutions, in church or state: and a prelate of our own nation and days was politically in the right, when he affirmed that the people have nought to do with the laws, but to obey them.—Whether this be a good or bad, a salutary or pernicious maxim; or whether a general diffusion of knowledge produce more evil than good; I am not now examining. A celebrated author of our own time has treated the subject with much ingenuity, and decided against

the spread of science. But that is not here the question. The fact is, that all the ancient legislators required a greater or less degree of implicit obedience to their respective laws; and for that purpose feigned an intercourse with some divinity to make that obedience more palatable to the credulous multitude.

'But was this, it will be said, the case with Moses?—Why not? And where is the proof that Moses did not, in this, act like other legislators? This concession, so far from diminishing the character of Moses and the wisdom of his laws, greatly enhances both, and is perfectly compatible with the only divine inspiration which sense and reason can admit—at least, which my sense and reason can admit.' P. 41.

The tritical tirade on politicians, which forms the chief part of this passage, we leave to its own merits; observing only, that here it is altogether out of place; the doctor himself, after stating, having declared it to be so. Whether the fact affirmed by him—'that all the ancient legislators required a greater or less degree of implicit obedience to their respective laws; and for that purpose feigned an intercourse with some divinity to make that obedience more palatable to the credulous multitude'—be a whit more pertinent, will now remain to be seen. The true state of the question is not, what all the ancient legislators have done, nor from what motive they acted; but whether Moses, as a legislator, acted like them, and from the motive here assigned?—In the first place then, if the fact were admitted, it is totally foreign to the subject, the question having no relation to Moses as a *legislator*, but as an *historian*,—and, indeed, (if what the doctor hath elsewhere maintained be true, that the Pentateuch was not written till after the death of Moses) relates not to Moses at all. But, setting this aside, in placing Moses, as a legislator, upon the same footing with all the other legislators of antiquity, Dr. Geddes makes him and them equally impostors; and thus, at a single dash of his pen, annihilates every argument in favour of Moses's being what he pretended, a lawgiver inspired by Jehovah. But, asks the doctor, was the reverse of this the case with Moses? or, in his own terms, did Moses feign an intercourse with the divinity, to make an implicit obedience to his laws the more palatable to the credulous multitude?—and he replies to himself: 'Why not?'—'And where is the proof that Moses did not, in this, act like other legislators?' It might be asked, in return, where is the proof that he did?—The proof that he did not, we reply, occurs either directly or indirectly in every page of the Hebrew Scriptures, and in the actual state of the Jews at present. Why Moses did not in this act like other legislators is sufficiently obvious; namely, because he was not like them, an impostor, but actually inspired by Jehovah. In respect to the opposite position, the truth of which Dr. Geddes contends as 'so far from diminishing the character of Moses

and the wisdom of his laws, that it greatly enhances both,' we envy not the doctor the glory of discovering, nor the sagacity exemplified in the additional observation, that 'this assertion is perfectly compatible with the ONLY *divine inspiration* which SENSE AND REASON CAN ADMIT.'—Dr. Geddes, however, modestly adds a limitation—'at least which MY sense and reason can admit.' And upon what ground is all this alleged by the doctor?—upon the following passage of St. James, 'for, *every good gift and perfect boon cometh down from above, from the Father of Lights.*'

It is not without indignation that we are compelled to expose such crude and miserable sophistry.—If Moses were an impostor, Christ was one; for he explicitly avowed the authority of Moses to have been from God himself.

*(To be continued.)*

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ART. VII.—*Medical Inquiries and Observations: containing an Account of the Yellow Fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia in* 1797, *and Observations upon the Nature and Cure of the Gout and Hydrophobia. By Benjamin Rush, M.D. &c. Vol. V.* 8vo. 5*s. Boards.* Mawman.

DR. Rush's volumes succeed with some rapidity; but, as the principal subject is unhappily so much before him, as from different causes it has become so peculiarly interesting, and as he has contrived to bring almost every disorder into the same vortex, it is not surprising that he is impelled with a velocity we do not often witness. In examining the last volume we were not greatly pleased with our author's theoretical plan, nor with his deriving the use of what we considered to be a doubtful remedy from theory rather than observation. We shall now follow his more matured views, and give the result of our own farther reflexions.

The epidemics and the weather preceding the yellow fever of 1797 are described at some length, and will admit, in Dr. Rush's opinion, of some useful application. Eruptive fevers were not, indeed, uncommon in the year anterior, and bilious disorders appeared as the van of this fatal epidemic; but the weather essentially differed from that which prevailed before the appearance of the yellow fever of 1793, without, in our opinion, having a proportional influence on the symptoms. The corona round the sun may, he thinks, throw a 'ray of light' upon the subject of Mr. Webster's system; but it will, like the corona itself, be a delusive glare; and indeed it was beneath Dr. Rush's character to have noticed such a whimsical theory.

The pulse in this epidemic did not greatly differ from that observed during the former fevers; but a peculiar beat of the

artery is mentioned, under the name of a *shattered* pulse, from its feeling like a quill that has been trodden on. It appeared to be a highly dangerous, indeed a fatal, symptom. The excretions were nearly the same: there was no recovery without black stools, and these, when favourable, came on early. The nervous system was not unusually affected; and delirium seldom succeeded when blood had been taken early. The senses of seeing and feeling were often impaired; and the appetite was frequently voracious. Glandular swellings were uncommon; the skin was cool, dry, and sometimes shining: the blood towards the end occasionally buffy, probably from the action of mercury.

The great questions are well known to consist in, whether the disease be contagious? and whether it be an imported fever? Dr. Rush appears to think it contagious in close rooms; and, at times, a sulphureous smell seemed to be obvious, or a sneezing came on, in infectious air. Nine out of about twenty-four practitioners of physic died of this epidemic, a singular and alarming proportion; in part, however, owing to great fatigue. The latter question was strongly contested between the college and Dr. Rush's party, whom we must now call the Academy of Medicine. From various facts adduced in their memorials, the fever seems, as we have said, to have been the usual autumnal remittent; but apparently excited by foul air, and continued from contagion, acting on bodies highly predisposed to it. These memorials deserve particular attention, and record many curious facts. We have no hesitation in joining with the Academy of Medicine in the opinion just adduced.

In the treatment of the epidemic before us Dr. Rush now limits the bleeding to the first day of the disease: on the second day it failed of doing good, and, on the third, did evident mischief. Here, therefore, the author approaches nearer to ourselves in opinion; for we have always affirmed that an early and decisive bleeding had done service in the hands of other practitioners in a similar disease, and we could admit that it might succeed in the yellow fever. Dr. Jackson advises bleeding in a subsequent period, where the viscera are infarcted; and Dr. Rush thinks that taking 'three or four ounces at a time,' and repeating it 'four or five times a day,' may be useful even in an advanced stage of the disease. In his narrative we perceive that he followed this plan. Bleeding must be avoided towards the close of a paroxysm. Dr. Rush seems to have profited largely in the precision and consistency of his views by an attention to Dr. Jackson's judicious remarks.

If we recollect rightly, Dr. Rush admits of purging more liberally now than in his former practice.

'From the great difficulty that was found in discharging bile from the bowels by the common modes of administering purges, Dr.

Griffitts suggested to me the propriety of giving large doses of calomel without jalap, or any other purging medicine, in order to loosen the bile from its close connexion with the gall-bladder and duodenum during the first day of the disease. This method of discharging acrid bile was found useful. I observed the same relief from large evacuations of fetid bile in the epidemic of 1797 that I have remarked in the fever of 1793. Mr. Bryce has taken notice of the same salutary effects from similar evacuations in the yellow fever on board the Busbridge Indiaman in the year 1792. His words are "It was observable that the more dark coloured and fetid such discharges were, the more early and certainly did the symptoms disappear. Their good effects were so instantaneous, that I have often seen a man carried up on deck perfectly delirious with subsultus tendinum, and in a state of the greatest apparent debility, who, after one or two copious evacuations of this kind, has returned of himself, and astonished at his newly acquired strength." Very different are the effects of tonic remedies when given to remove this apparent debility. The clown who supposes the crooked appearance of a stick, when thrust into a pail of water, to be real, does not err more against the laws of light than that physician errs against a law of the animal œconomy who mistakes the debility which arises from oppression for an exhausted state of the system, and attempts to remove it by stimulating medicines.

'After unlocking the bowels by means of calomel and jalap in the beginning of the fever, I found no difficulty afterwards in keeping them gently open by more lenient purges. In addition to those which I have mentioned in the account of the fever of 1793, I yielded to the advice of my friend Dr. Griffitts, by adopting the soluble tartar, and gave small doses of it daily in many cases. It seldom offended the stomach, and generally operated, without griping, in the most plentiful manner.' P. 110.

The exhibition of mercury to procure salivation concludes his account of the more active and useful remedies. Dr. Rush supposes that the mercury may 'act as a counter stimulus to the contagion;' but this is idle jargon. There can be no doubt that the contagion is of a sedative nature; and from this effect the blood is stagnated in the larger viscera: by diminishing the moles which nature was unable to combat, her exertions are renewed, and the removal of the load is assisted by purgatives, and by the tone excited by mercury. The symptoms which indicate a mild or fatal disease are enumerated at some length.

The next part of this volume is entitled 'Observations on the Nature and Cure of Gout.' The predisposing cause of gout is, in our author's opinion, direct or indirect debility; but the causes of a fit are either stimulating or of a sedative nature, acting on the accumulated excitability of the system, and, by destroying the equilibrium of excitement, producing irregular morbid action.

'The proximate cause of the gout, as of all other diseases, is

morbid excitement, accompanied with irregular action, or the absence of all action from the force of stimulus. There is nothing specific in the morbid excitement and actions which take place in the gout different from what occur in fevers. However varied morbid actions may be by their causes, seats, and effects, they are all the same; and the time will probably come when the whole nomenclature of morbid actions will be absorbed in the single name of disease.' P. 145.

Gout must therefore, like all other morbid actions, be treated with bleeding and blisters. Emetics premised will often restore regularity of action; and, in general, gouty inflammations are supposed not to differ from others of a common kind.

'The morbid excitement, and actions of the gout, when seated in the ligaments, the blood-vessels, and viscera, and left to themselves, produce effects different in their nature, according to the parts in which they take place. In the viscera they produce congestions composed of all the component parts of the blood. From the blood-vessels which terminate in hollow cavities and in cellular membrane, they produce those effusions of serum which compose dropsies. From the same vessels proceed those effusions which produce on the skin erysipelas, tetters, and all the different kinds of eruptions. In the ligaments they produce an effusion of coagulable lymph, which, by stagnation, is changed into what are called chalk-stones. In the urinary organs they produce an effusion of particles of coagulable lymph, or red blood, which, under certain circumstances, are changed into sand, gravel, and stone. All these observations are liable to some exceptions. There are instances in which chalk-stones have been found in the lungs, mouth, on the eye-lids, and in the passages of the ears, and a preternatural flux of water and blood has taken place from the kidneys. Pus has likewise been formed in the joints, and air has been found in the cavity of the belly instead of water.

'Sometimes the gout is said to combine with the fevers which arise from cold and contagion. We are not to suppose, from this circumstance, that the system is under a peculiar stimulus from the gout. By no means. The symptoms which are ascribed to the gout are the effects of morbid excitement excited by cold, or contagion acting upon parts previously debilitated by the usual remote causes of that disease.

'From a review of the symptoms of the gout, the impropriety of distinguishing it from its various seats, by specific names, must be obvious to the reader. As well might we talk of a yellow-fever in the brain, in the nerves, or in the groin, when its symptoms affect those parts, as talk of misplaced, or retrocedent gout. The great toe and the joints of the hands and feet are no more its exclusive seats than the 'stomach is the throne of the yellow fever.' In short, the gout may be compared to a monarch whose empire is unlimited. The whole body crouches before it.' P. 160.

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'But does not the gout prevent other diseases? and is it not improper upon this account to cure it? I answer, that it prevents other diseases, as the daily use of drams prevents the intermitting fever.—

In doing this they bring on an hundred more incurable morbid affections. The yellow fever carried off many chronic diseases in the year 1793, and yet who would wish for, or admit, such a remedy for a similar purpose? The practice of encouraging and inviting what has been called a friendly fit of the gout, as a cure for other diseases, resembles the practice of school-boys, who swallow the stones of cherries to assist their stomachs in digesting that delicate fruit. It is no more necessary to produce the gout in the feet, in order to cure it, than it is to wait for, or encourage, abscesses or natural hæmorrhages, to cure a fever. The practice originated at a time when morbid matter was supposed to be the cause of the gout; but it has unfortunately continued under the influence of theories which have placed the seat of the disease in the solids.' P. 163.

In this view, then, the state of debility preceding gout resembles the cold fit of fever, the inflammation the hot fit, and each is to be treated accordingly; bleeding copiously is of course not forgotten. On this subject we shall offer no opinion: if our author be right, practitioners, and patients who have judged from their feelings, have been for ages wrong. The circumstances and indications must be very strong to induce us to follow the steps of the former. Purging and cold air are also allowed. We believe that the gout has been in general treated too attentively with the ceremony of soft warm flannel. The means of preventing the disease when accompanied by violent or by feeble action are subjoined.

Observations on the hydrophobia follow. This also is a yellow fever, and to be cured by bleeding, in consequence of the inflammation, which prevents deglutition. Our author does not neglect the usual local preventives of cauterization or excision; nor does he overlook the use of mercurials. When the dread of water, however, arrives, the lancet is chiefly, in his opinion, to be depended upon. He would style hydrophobia the hydrophobic state of fever, and speaks with some complacency of the simplicity of his views compared with the imperfect nomenclature of other practitioners of medicine; but Dr. Rush affords a striking instance, if the denomination from symptoms be imperfect, of the greater danger of deducing appellations from theory. This darling opinion is but of a late birth, and within a few months may give way to another. So distant is the present from the former doctrine, that the disease which is now to be attacked by bleeding was treated, in a work of our author's published not long since, as arising from debility, and to be cured by cordials. Fortunately for theoretical reasoners, facts or assertions can be adduced in support of each; but the want of discrimination which can vary so widely must excite our pity.

ART. VIII.—*Three Lectures upon Animal Life, delivered in the University of Pennsylvania, by Benjamin Rush, M.D. &c. Published at the Request of his Pupils.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Mawman.

THE publication of these lectures was, it seems, earnestly requested. Perhaps they appeared to the pupils interesting and scientific. We can allow them the merit of ingenuity, but fear this is the extent of the commendation we ought in justice to bestow.

The great principle the present lectures are designed to illustrate is that published by Brown. It is his *primum mobile* that life is a forced state, depending for its existence and continuance on stimuli of different kinds; it is the flame that requires a constant accession of air, the machine that demands the perpetual action of a spring. It was originally the doctrine of Cullen, who delivered it in a less equivocal form; but perhaps, fearing the extent to which it might be carried, or perceiving some irremediable defect in the proposition itself, he seldom, after the year 1766, had recourse to this tenet. The doctrine is one of those which, with the air of novelty and importance, means nothing,—words of 'sound,' if not of 'fury,' void of signification. To explain it is sufficient to show its futility, at least to prove that no great improvement in physiology is to be drawn from such a source.

The real idea which this axiom seems intended to convey is, that the human body possesses only a capacity of excitement, that it is occasionally set in motion by stimulants, which motion is continued by a variety of exciting powers during the continuance of life. This is, however, true only to a certain extent. Without food, without air, without warmth, we should die; but so far from the total dependence of life upon any of these, the animal œconomy struggles to supply an accidental deficiency of all of them. There is, on the contrary, a living principle, which possesses powers wholly its own; and these stimuli are only subordinate assistants. We know that it possesses peculiar powers, because it corrects deviations, and accommodates itself to circumstances. The most essential stimulus, for instance, is food; but if the stomach be kept distended, the supply of food may be delayed. Dr. Rush has given an example of this kind in horses, who are for a time supported by cedar chips. We have lately offered others, where even a substance so unalimentary as steatite is employed by some savage tribes; and, where nothing is thrown in to distend, emptiness is avoided by external compression. If one stimulus be thus wanting, were the proposition strictly true, others would be requisite in a greater degree: but, in these circumstances, additional heat is injurious; air and exercise will not add to the powers of life,

and the coldest water will prolong rather than curtail existence. Whence then does this sluggish power, which must be forced to continue its existence, derive its stimuli? From the exertions, it is said, of thought and of hearing. The thought of dying by hunger is but little consolatory; and if sounds be heard they must bring constantly repeated disappointment. In trances, Dr. Rush contends some sense remains—and these are sufficient excitements; but, in the cases noticed, the surviving powers of mind were passive only; and if the powers of every stimulus, acting conjointly, were not sufficient to prevent the deliquium, it is improbable that *one of the weakest* of them should be able to overcome it.

Similar reasoning will prove, with respect to the other stimuli, that the animal œconomy, so far from owing the continuance of its existence exclusively to them, can supply their want; not by the increased energy of different exciting powers, but by its own exertions. In a colder medium it affords heat by the more active exertions of that function, which raises its own intrinsic heat above that of the medium in which it exists. When a supply of fluid is denied, it stops the excretory discharges; and, without exercise, the desire of food is lessened in proportion to the want of expenditure. If then, to say that life is a forced state, be designed to imply that we are beings so truly mechanical that we can no longer live without these external exciting powers than a ship can sail without wind or current, the proposition is not true; if it mean only that food, air, &c. are requisite to our health and well-being, no one exists who may be supposed to deny it, or who will consider it as a wonderful discovery.

Without, however, engaging in any explanation of the principle, Dr. Rush defends it at all hazards. The commencement of life is owing to the stimulus of the semen on the ovum, which we cannot prove has ever reached it, and its continuance to air, exercise, and food. The senses are one of the sources of excitement; and if the eyes be blinded, the ears become more active; if all the senses be blunted, animal enjoyments supply their place: and low indeed does our author stoop for supports of this strange doctrine. To show the singular weakness displayed in removing the various difficulties which arise would be to analyse every page—apparently the dotings of old age. We shall select one or two, not the most exceptionable instances of this kind.

'How is animal life supported in persons who pass many days, and even weeks, without food, and in some instances without drinks? Long fasting is usually the effect of disease, of necessity, or of a principle of religion. When it arises from the first cause, the actions of life are kept up by the stimulus of disease. The absence

of food, when accidental, or submitted to a means of producing moral happiness, is supplied,

'1. By the stimulus of a full gall bladder. This state of the receptacle of bile has generally been found to accompany an empty stomach. The bile is somewhat absorbed, and imparts a yellow colour to the skin of persons who suffer or die of famine.

'2. By increased acrimony in all the secretions and excretions of the body. The saliva becomes so acrid by long fasting, as to excoriate the gums; and the breath acquires not only a fœtor, but a pungency so active, as to draw tears from the eyes of persons who are exposed to it.

'3. By increased sensibility and excitability in the sense of the touch. The blind man mentioned by Mr. Boyle who could distinguish colours by his fingers possessed this talent only after fasting. Even a draught of any kind of liquor deprived him of it. I have taken notice, in my account of the yellow fever in Philadelphia in the year 1793, of the effects of a diet bordering upon fasting for six weeks, in producing a quickness and correctness in my perceptions of the state of the pulse, which I had never experienced before.

'4. By an increase of activity in the understanding and passions. Gamesters often improve the exercises of their minds when they are about to play for a large sum of money, by living for a day or two upon roasted apples and cold water. Where the passions are excited into preternatural action, the absence of the stimulus of food is scarcely felt. I shall hereafter mention the influence of the desire of life upon its preservation under all circumstances. It acts with peculiar force when fasting is accidental. But when it is submitted to as a religious duty, it is accompanied by sentiments and feelings which more than balance the abstraction of aliment. The body of Moses was sustained, probably without a miracle, during an abstinence of forty days and forty nights, by the pleasure he derived from conversing with his Maker "face to face, as a man speaking with his friend."

'I remarked formerly that the veins discover no deficiency of blood in persons who die of famine. Death from this cause seems to be less the effect of the want of food than of the combined and excessive operation of the stimuli, which supply its place in the system.' P. 46.

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'In that state of suspended animation which occurs in acute diseases, and which has sometimes been denominated a trance, the system is nearly in the same excitable state that it is in apparent death from drowning and freezing. Resuscitation in these cases is not the effect as in those which have been mentioned of artificial applications made to the body for that purpose. It appears to be spontaneous; but it is produced by impressions made upon the ears, and by the operations of the mind in dreams. Of the action of these stimuli upon the body in its apparently lifeless state, I have satisfied myself by many facts. I once attended a citizen of Philadelphia who died of a pulmonary disease in the 80th year of his age. A few days before his death he begged that he might not be interred until one week after the usual signs of life had left his body, and

gave as a reason for this request, that he had when a young man died to all appearance of the yellow fever in one of the West-India islands. In this situation he distinctly heard the persons who attended him fix upon the time and place of burying him. The horror of being put under ground alive produced such distressing emotions in his mind as to diffuse motion throughout his body, and finally excited in him all the usual functions of life. In Dr. Creighton's essay upon mental derangement there is a history of a case nearly of a similar nature. "A young lady, (says the doctor) an attendant on the princess of ——, after having been confined to her bed for a great length of time, with a violent nervous disorder, was at last, to all appearance, deprived of life. Her lips were quite pale, her face resembled the countenance of a dead person, and her body grew cold. She was removed from the room in which *she died*, was laid in a coffin, and the day for her funeral was fixed on. The day arrived, and, according to the custom of the country, funeral songs and hymns were sung before the door. Just as the people were about to nail on the lid of the coffin, a kind of perspiration was observed on the surface of her body. She recovered. The following is the account she gave of her sensations: she said, "It seemed to her as if in a dream, that she was really dead; yet she was perfectly conscious of all that happened around her. She distinctly heard her friends speaking and lamenting her death at the side of her coffin. She felt them pull on the dead clothes, and lay her in it. This feeling produced a mental anxiety which she could not describe. She tried to cry out, but her mind was without power, and could not act on her body. She had the contradictory feeling as if she were in her own body, and not in it, at the same time. It was equally impossible for her to stretch out her arm or open her eyes, as to cry, although she continually endeavoured to do so. The internal anguish of her mind was at its utmost height when the funeral hymns began to be sung, and when the lid of the coffin was about to be nailed on. The thought that she was to be buried alive was the first which gave activity to her mind, and enabled it to operate on her corporeal frame." P. 50.

When even the ears lose their capacity of being acted on by stimuli, the mind, by its operation, in *dreams*, is said to become the source of impressions which again set the wheels of life into motion. What is the proof of this? The strange story of John Engelbreght's trance, and his visit, during its continuance, to the heavenly regions!

The third lecture is the most interesting. It is designed to point out the various states of animal life in different parts of the globe, chiefly to show the different stimuli employed to continue it. In this part is also an account of various mental stimuli, and their effects: one passage we shall transcribe.

'The love of money sets the whole animal machine in motion. Hearts which are insensible to the stimuli of religion, patriotism, love, and even of the domestic affections, are excited into action by this passion. The city of Philadelphia, between the 10th and 15th

of August, 1791, will long be remembered by contemplative men, for having furnished the most extraordinary proofs of the stimulus of the love of money upon the human body. A new scene of speculation was produced at that time by the scrip of the bank of the United States. It excited febrile diseases in three persons who became my patients. In one of them, the acquisition of twelve thousand dollars in a few minutes by a lucky sale brought on madness which terminated in death in a few days. The whole city felt the impulse of this paroxysm of avarice. The slow and ordinary means of earning money were deserted, and men of every profession and trade were seen in all our streets hastening to the coffee-house, where the agitation of countenance and the desultory manners of all the persons who were interested in this species of gaming exhibited a truer picture of a Bedlam than of a place appropriated to the transaction of mercantile business. But further, the love of money discovers its stimulus upon the body in a peculiar manner in the games of cards and dice. I have heard of a gentleman in Virginia who passed two whole days and nights in succession at a card-table: and it is related in the life of a noted gamester in Ireland, that when he was so ill as to be unable to rise from his chair, he would suddenly revive when brought to the hazard table, by hearing the rattling of the dice.' P. 63.

The causes of life in different animals and in vegetables, as well as the causes of death, are next examined; and Dr. Rush declares that he excludes the intelligent principle of Whytt, the medical mind of Stahl, the healing powers of Cullen, and the vital principle of John Hunter. He must exclude them consistently with his system; but we will contend that more facts may be induced in the support of any of them than in that of the mechanical doctrine before us.

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ART. IX.—*Poems, by the Reverend William Lisle Bowles. Vol. II.* 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

MANY of the poems contained in this little volume have been separately noticed by us with deserved praise. Of the pieces now first published, the most important is that entitled The Spirit of Navigation and Discovery. It is the introductory canto to a long work, in which Mr. Bowles designs to trace the subject from the earliest period to the present times. The metre of this specimen he has found too confined. As it has been sufficiently proved that stanzas weary a reader less through a long work than the regular couplet, we wonder the example of Wieland has not been followed: His Oberon is written in stanzas of the same length; but the disposition of the rhymes is regulated by the will of the poet.

The opening of this poem is in Mr. Bowles's peculiar manner.

'Stern father of the storm! who dost abide
Amid the solitude of the vast deep,
For ever list'ning to the sullen tide
And whirlwinds, that the billowy desert sweep;
Thou at the distant death-shriek dost rejoice,
The rule of the tempestuous main is thine,
Outstretch'd and lone; thou utterest thy voice,
Like solemn thunders, "These wild waves are mine,
Mine their dread empire, nor shall man profane
Th' eternal secrets of my ancient reign."

'The voice is vain! secure, and as in scorn,
The gallant vessel goes before the wind—
Her parting sails swell stately to the morn—
She leaves the green earth and its hills behind—
Gallant before the wind she goes, her prow
High bearing, and disparting the blue tide
That foams and flashes in its rage below:
Meantime the helmsman feels a conscious pride,
And while far onward the long billows swell,
Looks to the lessening land, which seems to say "farewell!"

'Father of storms! then let thy tempests roar
O'er seas of solitary amplitude:
Man, the poor tenant of thy rocky shore,
Man, thy terrific empire hath subdued;
And though thy storms toss his nigh-founder'd bark
Where no dim watch-light gleams, still he defies
Thy utmost rage, and in his buoyant ark
Goes on, regardless of the dark'ning skies;
And o'er the mountain-surges as they roll,
Subdues his destin'd way, and speeds from pole to pole.

'Behold him now, far from his native plain,
Where high woods shade some wild Hesperian bay,
Or green isles glitter in the southern main,
His streaming ensign to the morn display.
Behold him, where the North's pale meteors dance,
And icy rocks roll glimm'ring from afar,
Fearless through night and solitude advance;
Or where the pining sons of Andamar
(When dark eclipse has wrapt the lab'ring moon)
Howl to the dæmon of the dread monsoon!

'Time was, like them, poor Nature's shiv'ring child,
Wand'ring the beach, and by the salt spray beat,
He watch'd the melancholy surge, or smil'd
To see it burn and bicker at his feet;
In some rude shaggy spot, by fortune plac'd,
He dreamt not of strange lands, and empires spread
Beyond the rolling of the wat'ry waste;
He saw the sun shine on the mountain's head,

But knew not, whilst he hail'd the orient light,
What myriads bless'd his beam, or sicken'd at the sight.' P. 113.

Man is next briefly described in his rude state; the rise of arts is then touched upon, the beginning of navigation, and the state of Tyre.

'Queen of the waters! who didst ope the gate
Of commerce, and display in lands unknown
Thy vent'rous sail, e'en now in ancient state
Methinks I see thee on thy rocky throne;
I see their massy piles thy cothons rear,
And on the deep a solemn shadow cast;
I traverse thy once-echoing shores, and hear
The sound of mighty generations past:
I see thy kingly merchants' throng'd resort,
And gold and purple gleam o'er all thy spacious port.

'I mark thy glitt'ring gallies sweep along—
The steady rowers to the strokes incline,
And chaunt in unison their choral song—
White through their oars the ivory benches shine—
The fine-wrought sails which looms of Egypt wove,
Swell beautiful beneath the bending mast,
Hewn from proud Lebanon's immortal grove;
The oaks of Bashan brave the cœcian blast!
So o'er the western wave thy vessels float,
For verdant Egypt bound, or Calpé's cliffs remote.

'Queen of the waters! throned on thy seat
Amidst the sea, thy beauty and thy fame
The deep, that rolls low-murmuring at thy feet,
And all the multitude of isles, proclaim!
For thee Damascus piles her woolly store;
To thee their flocks Arabia's princes bring;
And Sheba heaps her spice and glitt'ring ore;
"The ships of Tarshish of thy glory sing:
Queen of the waters! who is like to thee,
Replenish'd in thy might, and throned on the sea?" P. 118.

The voyage of a Tyrian ship to Egypt concludes the canto: it is very beautiful; but we apprehend the subject is too disjointed to excite interest throughout a long poem.

The monody on the death of Dr. Warton is equally honourable to the master and the scholar.

'Oh! I should ill thy gen'rous cares requite,
Thou who didst first inspire my timid muse,
Could I one tuneful tear to thee refuse,
Now that thine aged eyes are clos'd in night,
*Poor* Warton!—Thou hast strok'd my stripling head,
And sometimes, mingling kind reproof with praise,
My path hast best directed through the maze
Of thorny life—by thee my steps were led

To that romantic valley, high o'erhung
With sable woods, where many a minstrel rung
His bold harp to the sweeping waterfall,
Whilst Fancy lov'd around each form to call
That fill [*fills*] the poet's dream: to this retreat
Of Fancy, (won by whose inticing lay
I have forgot how sunk the summer's day)
Thou first did guide my not unwilling feet;
Meantime inspiring the gay breast of youth
With love of taste, of science, and of truth.' P. 137.

The entire panegyric evinces how the old master of Winchester was beloved. It has been said that Dr. Warton was the best tutor for a boy of talents, and the worst for others. Proofs enough exist how well he knew to encourage the timidity of genius, or to counteract its confident indolence; and he will not perhaps be generally censured, because his good-nature did not force idle dullness to unprofitable exertion.

The monody proceeds with its review of the author's school studies, and pictures are exhibited from Homer, Theocritus, Sophocles, Shakspeare, Ossian, Milton, and the Ode to Fancy, which *here* we do not wonder to find in such company. The conclusion is thus:

'So I lov'd to lie
By the wild streams of Elfin poesy,
Rapt in strange musings: but when life began
I never roam'd, a visionary man,
(For, taught by thee, I learnt [*learn'd*] with sober eyes
To look on life's severe realities)
I never made (a dream-distemper'd thing)
Poor Fiction's realm, my world; but to cold truth
Subdu'd the vivid shapings of my youth;
Save when the drisly woods were murmuring,
Or some hard crosses had my spirit bow'd,
Then I have left, unseen, the careless crowd,
And sought the dark sea roaring, or the steep
That brav'd the storm; or in the forest deep,
As all its grey leaves rustled, wooed the tone
Of the lov'd lyre, that, in my spring-tide gone,
Wak'd me to transport:

'Eighteen summers now
Have smil'd on Itchin's margin, since the time
When these delightful visions of our prime
Rose on my view in loveliness.—And thou,
Friend of my muse, in thy death-bed art cold,
Who, with the tenderest touches, didst unfold
The shrinking leaves of fancy, else unseen
And shelterless: therefore to thee are due
Whate'er their summer sweetness; and I strew,
Sadly, such flow'rets as on hillocks green,

Or mountain slope, or hedge-row, yet my hand
May cull, (with many a recollection bland,
And mingled sorrow) Warton, on thy tomb,
To whom, if bloom they boast, they owe their bloom!' P. 144.

The Inscriptions, Mr. Bowles says, should rather have been called Inscriptive Pieces, as they are written in the form of inscriptions, but at the same time only convey the *particular* sentiments of the author, such as the scenery before him suggested to his mind. This is a just distinction: there is nothing didactic in these pieces;—even that for Greenwich Hospital is deficient in that proud and national conclusion which we had reason to expect from its opening.

'Come to these peaceful seats, and think no more
Of cold, of midnight watchings, or the roar
Of Ocean, tossing on his restless bed!
Come to these peaceful seats, ye who have bled
For honour, who have travers'd the great flood,
Or on the battle's front with stern eye stood,
When roll'd its thunder, and the billows red
Oft clos'd, with sudden flashings, o'er the dead!

'O heavy are the sorrows that beset
Old age! and hard it is—hard to forget
The sunshine of our youth, our manhood's pride!
But here, O aged men, ye may abide
Secure, and see the last light on the wave
Of Time, which wafts you silent to your grave:
Like the calm evening ray, that smiles serene
Upon the tranquil Thames, and cheers the sinking scene.' P. 18.

The two sonnets which are among the 'Juvenilia' we remember in the earlier edition of Mr. Bowles's poems. The one written at Dover is materially improved, and *tamed* to an appropriate and moral point. Gilimer, and the Hymn to Woden, are such odes as might have been expected from a boy of promise. The following nameless stanzas have a better claim to approbation:

'I trust the happy hour will come,
That shall to peace thy breast restore;
And that we two, beloved friend,
Shall one day meet to part no more.

'It grieves me most, that parting thus,
All my soul feels I dare not speak;
And when I turn me from thy sight,
The tears in silence wet my cheek.

'Yet I look forward to the time,
That shall each wound of sorrow heal;
When I may press thee to my heart,
And tell thee all which now I feel.' P. 81.

The volume contains a few Latin poems, of which the longest, on the Siege of Gibraltar, gained the chancellor's prize at Oxford in 1782. To this only no translation is affixed.

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ART. X. — *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History. To which is added, an Essay on Christian Temperance and Self-denial: By the late George Campbell, D. D. Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen. With some Account of the Life and Writings of the Author. By the Rev. George Skene Keith.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 16*s. Boards.* Johnson. 1800.

DR. Campbell is well known to the literary world by his Essay on Miracles, the Philosophy of Rhetoric, and his Translation of the New Testament. In each of these works the accurate reasoner and the man of taste are alike distinguishable. To profound study he united the highest intellectual attainments; and, without the publication of these Lectures, happy should we have termed those of his countrymen who had the advantage of attending so accomplished a professor of divinity. Every part of the present work confirms us in this opinion of him. Acute, easy, liberal, he places before his hearers the principal lineament in the history of the church, from the earliest times to the Reformation; and we only regret that he has not pursued his investigation to the present day, as no one appears to have been so competent to have discussed the differences in theological opinions prevalent in Great-Britain, or to have expatiated upon them with more candour. With charity which is the essence of the Christian religion he was pre-eminently gifted, and it is this which, above all things, he endeavours to inculcate on his disciples.

Prefixed to the Lectures is an ample account of the life and writings of the author, who was born at Aberdeen the 25th of December, 1719, educated at the grammar-school in the same town, and intended for the employment of signet-writer, an occupation similar to that of an English attorney, in which he was bound an apprentice. The love of study, however, prevailed over every opposition: in 1741 he attended divinity lectures at Edinburgh, before the term of his apprenticeship was fully completed, and soon after became a regular student in the university of Aberdeen, attending the lectures of professor Lumsden in King's, and professor Chalmers in Marischal, college. In 1746 he was licensed to preach by the presbytery of Aberdeen. In 1748 he obtained the living of Banchory Ternan, in which situation he became a married man, and was fortunate in possessing a lady 'remarkable for the sagacity of her understanding, the integrity of her heart, the general propriety of her conduct, and her skill

in the management of domestic œconomy.' Mutual happiness was the consequence of this union, which was not terminated till her death in 1792. In 1757 he was translated to Aberdeen, to be one of the ministers of that town, and in 1759 was presented to the office of principal of Marischal college.

In the appointment to this office, the spirit of clanship, formerly so prevalent in Scotland, and which had obstructed his views in the vacancy of a small benefice, rendered him considerable assistance. He was a Campbell, in some way or another related to the duke of Argyle; and John, the great duke of that clan, in 1715, being at Aberdeen, at the head of the army, had paid his father, a minister of that town, a visit, and glanced at their relationship. This circumstance was not sufficiently appreciated by our author; but his friends, who had a better insight into the manners of the world, prevailed on him to write to 'Archibald, duke of Argyle, who had for many years had the chief direction of Scotch affairs,' and to state in modest terms his relationship to the family. The talents of two other competitors, though aided by the interest of the magistrates, and the landed property of the county, could not stand against such a claim, and it was fortunate that, in this instance, the subject of it was possessed of so highly meritorious a character.

Mr. Hume's Treatise on Miracles gave the new principal an opportunity of evincing that he was not unworthy of his office. He opposed it in a sermon preached before the provincial synod of Aberdeen, in 1760, which he was requested to publish; but he preferred the form of a dissertation, and in that state sent the manuscript to Dr. Blair, to be by him communicated to the metaphysician. Availing himself then of the remarks of his friends, and his opponent, he gave it to the world in 1763, with a dedication to the late famous Scotch minister—lord Bute: but however desirable the patronage of the minister might be in other respects, it was of very little assistance in giving circulation, in the literary world, to an essay which, from the favourable impressions of Blair and Hume, was eagerly read, and universally admired. Before the publishing of the dissertation

'he received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from the neighbouring university of King's College in Old Aberdeen. This degree was procured without any solicitation on his part; for George Campbell had so much innate vigour of mind, as to be more ambitious to deserve, than to obtain, a title.' P. xvii.

To one who knows any thing of Scotch degrees (and we are sorry to add that the remark is applicable to degrees in other universities) our biographer's observation on this title will appear superfluous. The character of the principal, like that of the head of a college in the English universities, demanded the additional title of Doctor, which, in every university, is acquired

with few or no attainments—money or time, or both, being the chief requisites: the most ignorant who have these qualifications are seldom or never rejected, and the man of learning confers an honour on the university from which he deigns to receive it.

In 1771 he was elected professor of divinity in Marischal college, on which he resigned his office as one of the ministers of Aberdeen: but as 'minister of Gray Friars, an office conjoined to the professorship about a century ago, he was obliged to preach once every Sunday in one of the established churches.' Few persons seem to have entertained truer notions of the office of a teacher in an university than our new professor; and the plan he had in view, on entering upon his lectures, though expressed in rather too strong language, may be recommended to every one who undertakes a similar employment.

"Gentlemen, (he thus addresses his pupils) the nature of my office has been much misunderstood. It is supposed, that I am to teach you every thing connected with the study of divinity. I tell you honestly, that I am to teach you nothing. Ye are not school-boys. Ye are young men, who have finished your courses of philosophy, and ye are no longer to be treated as if ye were at school. Therefore I repeat it, I am to teach you nothing; but, by the grace of God, I will assist you to teach yourselves every thing." P. xxiii.

In 1771 he published his excellent sermon on the Spirit of the Gospel; and, in 1776, his Philosophy of Rhetoric. In this latter year, also, he acquired the friendship of Dr. Tucker by a sermon, then much admired, and very generally read, on the Duty of Allegiance, in which he endeavours to show 'that the British colonies in America had no right, either from reason or from Scripture, to throw off their allegiance;' and he uses those vulgar arguments, which, as being purely political, and more especially adapted to the sentiments of the majority of that day, were very improper topics for the pulpit. It is so much the fashion for divines to make the varying politics of the hour the subject of their discourses, and in them to follow the sentiments of those whose patronage is deemed most advantageous, that we must not be very severe in our animadversions on the present occasion. In 1777 he chose a better subject for a discourse, which he published at the request of the Society for propagating Christian Knowledge, and in which the success of the first publishers of the Gospel is ably treated as a proof of its truth. In 1779, when many of his countrymen, led away by the madness of enthusiasm and fanaticism, were rushing headlong into the most antichristian practice of persecution, he published a very seasonable address to the people of Scotland, on the alarms which had been raised by the bill in favour of the Roman-catholics.

"Let popery be as black as ye will, call it Belzebub, if ye please. It is not by Belzebub that I am for casting out Belzebub, but by the spirit of God. We exclaim against popery; and in exclaiming against it, we betray but too manifestly that we have imbibed of the spirit for which we detest it. In the most unlovely spirit of popery, and with the unhallowed arms of popery, we would fight against popery. It is not by such weapons that God hath promised to consume the man of sin, but by the breath of his mouth, that is his word."—"Christians, in ancient times, confided in the divine promises: we, in these days, confide in acts of parliament." "God's promises do well enough when the legislature is their surety." "Let me tell those people so distrustful in God's promises, and so confident in the arm of flesh, that true religion never flourished so much, never spread so rapidly, as when, instead of persecuting, it was persecuted,—instead of obtaining support from human sanctions, it had all the terrors of the magistrate and the laws armed against it." P. xxxii.

In the same year, also, he published a sermon on the Happy Influence of Religion on Civil Society. The last work which he lived to bring before the public was his Translation of the Four Gospels, with preliminary Dissertations, and explanatory Notes, of which it is unnecessary to say any thing farther in this place than that it is worthy of his talents and character.

In 1795 he resigned his professorship, in a letter to the moderator of the presbytery of Aberdeen, which they voted to be inserted in their records; and our readers, we are persuaded, will be gratified by a perusal of it in this place.

"Reverend and dear Sir, "Aberdeen, June 11, 1795.

"I hereby intimate to you, and to the reverend presbytery of Aberdeen, that I henceforth resign my charge of professor of divinity in Marischal college, and minister of Gray Friars church, into the hands of the presbytery, whom I entreat to declare me released in future from these functions, and the pastoral relation implied in them loosed.

"The causes of my making this resignation are the following:—

"1st, I am sensible of such a decline, both in body and in mind, as unfits me, in a considerable degree, for the discharge of the duties incumbent, in a way which either would be satisfactory to myself, or (as I much fear) profitable to those for whom my services are chiefly intended.

"2dly, It is my firm opinion, that when a man is conscious that he is no longer able to perform properly the duties of an office, and is providentially in a situation of living independently of its emoluments, it is an indispensable duty to resign, that a fit person may be timely found to supply the place, for the sake of the community at large, that the public may not suffer; compared with which, the accommodation of the incumbent is, and ought always to be, regarded as but a secondary consideration at the most. This I do more readily in the present case, as the patron will have no difficulty in supplying the charge, about to be vacated, in such time, as that the di-

vinity-school shall suffer nothing. There is no *ann*, and, consequently, no claim for vacant stipend, to occasion a delay after resignation, as after a decease.

"I hope I shall not be misunderstood by any to mean, by this deed, a resignation of the character of a minister of the Gospel and servant of Christ. In this character I glory, so far am I from intending to resign it but with my breath; nor do I mean to retain it only as a title. For if, by the blessing of God, I should yet be able to do any real service, either in defence, or in illustration, of the Christian cause, I shall think it my honour, as well as my duty, and the highest gratification of which I am capable, to be so employed. It is only from the particular relation to the people of Aberdeen, as pastor, and the theological students of Marischal college, as teacher, that it is my desire to be loosed. And let me add, this proceeds not from dislike to the particular service of either, (for I have had much enjoyment in both, and have the most ardent wishes for the welfare of both) but from a conviction of unfitness, owing to age and growing infirmities, and from a fervent desire and hope that, in regard to both, the place shall soon be better supplied.

"I beg leave to offer my best respects to my brethren of the presbytery, and most thankful acknowledgments for all the marks of attention with which, in their public capacity as a community, or any of the members individually, have been pleased to honour me. May power, accompanied with divine favour, ever attend them, and may they enjoy much of that greatest of all pleasures to a faithful pastor, to perceive, by the fruits produced in their people, that their labours have not been in vain in the Lord.

"I very sincerely am,
"Reverend and dear sir,
"Your affectionate brother in the Lord,
"And most humble servant,
"GEORGE CAMPBELL."

P. liii.

Soon after the resignation of his professorship, he resigned also the principalship, on a pension of 300*l.* a year being conferred on him by government; but this pension he possessed for a very small time, for, on the 31st of March, 1796, his last illness seized him, and on the next morning it was followed by a paroxysm of the palsy, which destroyed his faculty of speech, and under which he languished till he died. His funeral sermon was preached on the 17th of April by Dr. Brown, who had succeeded him in the offices of principal and professor.

Thus have we selected the chief lineaments in the life of Dr. Campbell, communicated to us by his biographer; and we shall conclude them by inserting an epitome of his character from the same writer.

"In conversation, his wit often appeared to great advantage; but it was mixed with so much pleasantry and good humour, that no person could be displeased, even when he was the subject of this delicate raillery; and though extremely well bred, he was apt to laugh very freely, when any ludicrous story was told, or any ridiculous

thing happened in company. From his being much absorbed in reflexion, he was sometimes a little absent; but in general he was very attentive to his guests, was an agreeable companion to those whom he visited; was very fond of conversing with young people; and he could, from the sweetness of his temper, and condescending manners, render himself agreeable even to young children. He had a particular talent in conveying important instructions in an easy natural way, without the appearance of instructing, and when he seemed only to have in view the amusement of his hearers. Even a common sentiment was often brought out by him in such a manner as could not fail to give pleasure to a man of discernment; for what he said was not the offspring of memory, but of invention. Men of detail and anecdote might sometimes shine more in conversation: he spoke with naïveté, and sometimes with hesitation; but his hearers were often agreeably surprised at the happy manner in which he related a common incident.

'In matters of mere opinion he generally expressed himself in mild language to those who differed from him in sentiment. Yet when any person behaved himself very rudely in company, he had a singular art of saying the strongest things, and of conveying the severest reproofs, in very genteel expressions.

'In general, he was a man of a mild disposition and even temper, and was not much subject to passion; but when once he was roused, he became warm and animated in a very high degree: yet an acknowledgment of an offence was always followed by his ready and complete forgiveness. A mere difference in opinion did not inspire him with the least personal animosity, even in the most animated debate. But when any insinuations were thrown out against his veracity, or candour, he defended himself in such a way, as that no man, who had once attacked him, would choose to do so on another occasion.

'The most prominent feature, in his moral character, was his love of truth. No man was ever more strict in speaking truth; and the least deviation from it was accompanied with the strongest marks of his disapprobation. It was by paying this strict regard to truth and principle that he strengthened the powers of his understanding, while he preserved his virtue uncorrupted. For though a regard to truth cannot create or produce genius, yet it wonderfully corroborates the powers of the understanding. The man who perverts his reason, or bends it to support a falsehood, even if he have genius and abilities, becomes only a sophist; and though he may sometimes impose upon others, always lands in self-deception. But a man of equal genius and talents, who employs all the powers of his understanding only in searching after or defending truth, braces the faculties of his mind, as well as preserves his virtue. In this case, whether the reason, even of a man of genius, shall resemble an oak or an ozier, depends on always adhering to truth, and never bending to power, or acting contrary to conviction. The man who would be qualified for answering such a writer as Mr. Hume must have that love of truth which was possessed by Dr. Campbell.

'In private life, he was a most affectionate husband, and a steady friend to those few whom he honoured with his friendship. He had

none of those peculiarities by which learned men either are, or affect to be, distinguished from others. He lived for many years on an intimate footing with a few select friends, who, before his election to the professorship, shared much of his society. He had very few, if any, enemies; for he took no concern in borough politics or in private quarrels. Yet, in the management of the different public and charitable institutions in the city of Aberdeen, to a share in the direction of which he was called by his offices, it was by all persons admitted, that he acted an attentive, conscientious, and manly part, becoming an intelligent and independent mind.

'He was of a very delicate constitution, and was subject to violent periodical colics, though very remarkable for his temperance. Having once discovered that abstinence from food, for a day or more, was the best remedy for these complaints, he would never take any medicine, till he was seized with that illness which he had about five years before his death. Yet, in consequence of these periodical complaints, and this singular regimen, he kept free of all other diseases. In this situation it was not to be wondered that he had rather a mean opinion of the medical art; but this candid man, who was always open to conviction, not only called in the aid of physicians when he was seized with that illness, but having once received benefit from them, he ever after placed the most implicit confidence in one of these gentlemen, and even consulted him when he had the slightest complaint.

'His stature was below the middle size; and he stooped much in his old age. But he had a fine open countenance, a significant index of his candid mind; very regular features, which were marked with lines of thought; and a most piercing eye, which indicated his uncommon natural perspicacity. Lavater, if the principles of his art be well founded, would have pronounced him a man of great candour, correct observation, and deep penetration.' P. xlvi.

To the life of Dr. Campbell are subjoined some excellent remarks on his Lectures, and style of lecturing, from which we could transcribe much with great pleasure; but the whole is precious, and deserves the particular attention of masters of colleges and teachers of divinity. We cannot hesitate, however, to afford some place for his excellent remarks on translations, which may be useful in every place of worship. To those who understand other languages besides their own, we recommend it to accompany the reader of the Scriptures with a translation in a different tongue. They who can read their own language alone, should carry to church, or meeting, some of the valuable translations, we now possess, of the Scriptures, and which are not read from the public desk; and, in private families, different translations should be used for the purpose of comparison, that the perusers may, in abstruse or doubtful points, acquire the true sense of the original, and be rather attentive to the spirit of the Gospel than anxious to attach any high degree of consequence to the words of the translator.

"Translation is both the simplest and most important species of explanation. One considerable advantage of reading versions in different languages is this: There are many words which, because they are familiar to us, we think we understand perfectly: but it is the very circumstance of their familiarity that prevents our discovering that we do not understand them. By being acquainted with versions, the terms of which are not so familiar to us, we shall sometimes be led to discover, almost instantly, the genuine sentiment of the sacred writer. Regnum Dei, emendatio vitæ, sana doctrina, to an attentive reader, suggest something different from what is conveyed in our version, and give us a more precise idea than the words, kingdom of God, repentance, and sound doctrine, import to the English reader.

"If the young divine study on the common plan, and begin with consulting a commentator (and if he mean to be impartial he must consult several), he is laid under a necessity of being unsettled in his opinions, from the different expositions given. For he has no fund of his own in the knowledge of the language, style, and manner, of the sacred books, whereby he may be assisted in forming a judgment between the jarring comments of different expositors; and when the young student is possessed of a natural good taste and quickness of discernment, it were a pity not to put him into that track which might qualify him, in time, for being an expositor to himself, and not leave him in the power of the first he happens to meet with; or at least, of that commentator, who has the knack of setting off his opinions in the most plausible manner. To prescribe to the young student, as some do, to read the Scriptures regularly along with some approved commentary, is, in my opinion, a more effectual method of making him the disciple of the commentator, than the disciple of Christ. The ground is in this way pre-occupied—his head is stuffed with the criticisms of others. All that is required of him is memory—there is little room for judgment or reflexion." P. lxiv.

In a future number we shall restrict ourselves to the Lectures on Ecclesiastical History; but we should have been unjust to our own feelings, as well as the merit of their late worthy author, if we had not consecrated more pages than usual to his life and character.

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ART. XI.—*Letters to a Prebendary: being an Answer to Reflections on Popery, by the Rev. J. Sturges, LL. D. Prebendary and Chancellor of Winchester, and Chaplain to his Majesty; with Remarks on the Opposition of Hoadlyism to the Doctrines of the Church of England, and on various Publications, occasioned by the late Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A.* 4to. 10s. 6d. *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

TO our review of Mr. Milner's History of Winchester, Vol. XXVIII. p. 361, New Arr. we have subjoined some account of this controversy.

The present ample reply to Dr. Sturges is divided into eight letters, the first of which is introductory: the second on the papal supremacy. The third letter relates to religious observances and the celibacy of the clergy. The fourth defends the Catholics against the charge of persecution. The fifth contains a general attack on the Reformation. In the sixth letter Mr. Milner vindicates the conduct of the English Catholics in the reign of Elizabeth: and the next contains their history to the present time. The eighth and last letter is entitled Hoadlyism, being a severe attack on the doctrines of bishop Hoadly. The appendix relates to the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester, containing answers to several criticisms on that work.

We have already exposed many mistakes of Mr. Milner as an antiquary, and his prejudices as a Roman-catholic, nor shall we much enlarge on the present quarto volume of controversy. When he begins with expressing his expectation of meeting with the opposition of the ignorant and bigoted, but the approbation of a small but enlightened and liberal class of men, we must beg leave to assure him that he views objects through the green spectacles of his prejudices, and expects that others should behold them with the same tinge. This country abounds with enlightened and liberal men; and none but ignorant and bigoted Roman-catholics can favour the illiberal insults which Mr. Milner has thrown on the established religion and government.

Our readers would not be amused, and would not receive the smallest instruction, from a repetition of Mr. Milner's panegyrics on the Roman-catholic writers, or his attacks on the reformers; and of the author's knowledge as an antiquary we have no high opinion, and certainly less of his skill or accuracy as a reasoner. Mr. Milner seems to imagine, in contradiction to all history and experience, that the circumstances of all ages are precisely the same; and that, because an institution is beneficial in one century, it must be so in another. It is true, that, amidst the tumults and bloodshed which succeeded the fall of the Roman empire in the West, the monasteries were filled with men of science, who took refuge in them, as asylums from the surrounding horrors: But in a more calm and peaceable state of society, when knowledge began to revisit the world, and these institutions became, in their turn, the seats of ignorance and prejudice, that contributed to depopulate countries and obstruct their political prosperity, what was formerly advantageous became noxious. Yet such is Mr. Milner's whole strain of ratiocination, which coincides with this maxim, that because the mother's milk is good for the child therefore the man must suck of it all his life. Mr. Milner is so much of an antiquary, that he seems to have made his escape from the tenth century into the present; and, for aught we know, may be

the famous wandering Jew who beheld the crucifixion of Christ, and afterwards appeared in Germany in the sixteenth century. We have had repeated occasions to observe, that no pursuits require more firm and solid judgement than those of an antiquary. We must not, like the owl, only see things in the dark, but bring them to open day, and treat them with the discrimination of modern ability, and the various reflexions and refractions of modern intellectual light. Mr. Milner, on the contrary, as for example p. 97, gravely attacks the opinions of the most liberal and enlightened Protestant authors as *prejudices* and *misapprehensions*. It follows that, in his eyes, the amazing prosperity and power of England, which began with the firm establishment of the Protestant religion under Elizabeth, are not equal to what they were in the Roman-catholic times. Which is the same as if the owl were to address the eagle thus:—'It is true, Mr. Eagle, that your eyes behold a certain luminary which you call the sun, but the existence of which you will permit me to doubt, as I never saw it myself; and as to your wide range through the meridian sky, I must assert it to be mere prejudice and misapprehension, and that your abode can never exceed my barn.'

It is impossible gravely to consider the arguments, if such they can be called, which are advanced by an author so deeply and irremediably prejudiced and bigoted, that he regards even candour as a crime. All the scandal that can be raked up against the Protestants is here readily detailed, and mingled with such ridiculous panegyric on the Roman-catholics, that the astonishment of the reader is divided between the author's credulity and his malignity. If such an attack upon the religion of this country had been published by an infidel, no punishment would have been thought too severe for the offence. It is true that Mr. Milner pretends a veneration for the church of England; but this hypocrisy cannot impose upon the most short-sighted reader, when he peruses this envenomed libel on all its venerable founders and supporters.

The appendix, which is printed in a smaller type, contains, as already mentioned, answers to some criticisms on the History of Winchester. When the author asserts that some late visionary opinions, advanced by two obscure French authors, afford 'a strong argument for the veracity of the Sacred Writings,' we are *not* surprised at his weakness, who nevertheless, if a real Roman-catholic, must allow that infallibility cannot admit of additional arguments. *Quod non juvat obstat.* Mr. Milner seems not aware of the dangerous consequences arising from such an attempt. The antiquarian discussions are dull and minute; and our readers will be more amused with the following note from p. 293, which seems written in the usual spirit of Mr. Milner's creed, that every

Roman-catholic is an honest man, and every Protestant a scoundrel.

'I cannot neglect the opportunity of making a few observations on two very long and tedious articles, consisting of forty columns of close printing, from page 130 to 150, at the end of the first part of the Hampshire Repository, which display as much illiberality and bigotry, amidst the most unbounded professions of candour and toleration, as is any where to be met with.—The first article relates to a French emigrant priest, of the name of Couvet, who resided at Winchester four years ago, and whose history, or rather tragi-comedy of errors, is briefly this. Having been at times questioned by some of the poor people, who lived in the same house with him, on the subject of his religion, (for he was not a field preacher, nor did he obtrude that topic even in private conversation), he expressed himself with the earnestness that might naturally be expected from a man who had lost every thing, except his life, in defence of it, but in such a mixed jargon of English and French as to have been totally misapprehended on the most material point of his speeches, (as now appears by the charges that have been brought against him), particularly by a Scotch Presbyterian woman, to whom he spoke w th more freedom, under a mistaken idea, as he afterwards declared to me, that his proselyting a member of the kirk of Scotland could give no offence to the clergy of the church of England. He was afterwards convented upon the subject of these conversations, when, from want of the parties comprehending each other, fresh misunderstandings occurred on both sides, all of which would have been prevented if those gentlemen had permitted me to have been present at the interview, as I conceive I ought to have been, both in quality of a joint inspector of the French clergy, and of an individual implicated in the affidavit. But the confusion did not end here: one gentleman opens a letter directed to another person; and when the circumstance is complained of by the respectable writer of it, instead of a proper apology for his conduct, he publishes that letter, and with it a tedious and unintelligible answer to it, from which nothing can be collected, except the persecuting principles of the writer carried into effect to the utmost extent that they were capable of. In fact, this very gentleman, who fills whole pages with professions of liberality, boasts, in the passage which I refer to, of having actually contributed, by his importunities with persons in power, to the expelling of poor Couvet (a considerable time after he had left the city) from the kingdom; on no other charge than that of having, in private conversation in the recess of his own lodgings, extolled and recommended the Catholic religion, in the hearing of two or three poor wretches who most likely before had no religion at all!

'The second instance of the writer's bigotry which I have to mention relates also to a French clergyman, by name Meffre; but it consists, not in censuring, but in praising, not in persecuting, but in rewarding. I have a copious collection of original letters, relating to this case (as I have others concerning the former) from the countrymen and friends of Mons. Meffre, particularly from the captain of the vessel of which he was nominal chaplain, and the superiors of the

English Catholics, to whom his conduct occasioned an infinite deal of trouble; but I shall be as brief on the business as possible. By these papers, and his own printed account, it appears that he was originally a Catholic; that during the early part of the French revolution he complied with all the impious terms required of him by the destroyers of the religion of his country, swearing to the civil constitution of the clergy, as it was called, accepting of the employment of a *vicaire* or curate, (for that was the extent of his promotion) and, as I have reason to believe, also the higher orders, from the profligate usurper of the see of Toulon. Soon after this, royalism getting the ascendency in that neighbourhood, Mons. M. applied to the representative of the lawful bishop in order to be re-admitted into the pale of his former church, from which he had been excluded by excommunication. This request, however, not being immediately granted, he obtruded himself into the Catholic ministry, and, without any lawful commission or authority, presumed to officiate as the Catholic chaplain of the ship Pompée, when it sailed from the aforesaid port. Arriving in England, he found himself equally rejected as he had been at Toulon by real Catholics. At length, however, by a great shew of repentance, and retracting his past engagements, he contrived to get absolved from his censures, and re-admitted into the aforesaid church. Orthodoxy of itself, however, in this situation, was not sufficient, and Mons. M. appeared to be of the opinion of Dr. S. which I have controverted in my third letter, concerning the law of clerical celibacy. One indication of this nature, which happened at Salisbury, and threatened other more serious consequences, had the effect of causing the Rt. Rev. Dr. Walmesley, F. R. S. and vicar apostolic of the district, to suspend him from all ecclesiastical functions. In conclusion, Mons. M. finding it useless to wear the mask of Catholicism any longer, applied to certain gentlemen of the establishment to be admitted a member of their communion. It might have been expected that the well-known history of Archibald Bower, and those of bishop Hoadly's pretended converts, Pilloniere and Fournier, would have made them a little cautious on such an occasion. Instead, however, of that, the proposal was readily accepted of. Mons. M. was permitted, without hesitation, to read his recantation in Winchester cathedral. A much more valuable, because a much more secure, pension than that which he enjoyed before was procured for him; and, what was the most important point of all, he got rid of the law of celibacy, and was enabled to marry a lady with whom he had before got acquainted in this city.

'The statement of these particulars seems an act of justice, due not only to the Catholic body, but also to the public at large, after the falsehoods that have been imposed upon them in the joint production of the proselyte himself and of his spiritual father, in the Hampshire Repository. The latter may continue to boast that the work in which he has been so instrumental is "a most disinterested, premeditated, elaborate, deep, clear, and conscientious case of conversion, doing equal credit to the convert himself, and to the church to which he becomes thus converted." P. 150. Still it will always remain incontrovertibly true, that this versatile religionist, who is so honourably received by one church, was an outcast from the other, and had repeatedly been punished with every censure which it was in

her power to inflict, suspension, interdict, irregularity, and excommunication!' P. 293.

In his reply to other criticisms, Mr. Milner has, with his usual obliquity, passed the most powerful in silence, and carefully answered the weakest.

Upon the whole, independently of its malignant tendency, we must pronounce this work to be one of the most dull and futile that has ever passed under our censure.

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ART. XII.—*A Letter to Dr. Percival on the Prevention of Infectious Fevers: And an Address to the College of Physicians at Philadelphia, on the Prevention of the American Pestilence; read to the Literary and Philosophical Society of Bath: By John Haygarth, M.D.* 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

INFECTIOUS fevers have, within a few years, lost much of the terrific garb, with which indeed fancy, but, more properly, their own fatality, had invested them. With moderate ventilation and cleanliness, we see few instances of communicated fever—and even these are comparatively slight. Indeed we have seldom hesitated to predict a favourable termination to every disease of this kind from infection, in patients whose constitutions have not been injured, or whose minds have not been greatly depressed—nor have we been disappointed.

In the 'preliminary principles' prefixed to the work before us we find many valuable well ascertained facts relative to typhus. In the most crowded chambers infection seems unavoidable, but in rooms tolerably ventilated it is rare. There must, in Dr. Haygarth's words, be the proper dose of the poison; and we may add, that it must be in the proper degree of concentration. We are, however, surprised at Dr. Haygarth's axiom on this subject—that the greater the dose the greater the effect; for in small-pox, a great object of his attention, no severer disorder is produced by twenty inoculations at the same time than by one. This fact is more to the purpose than the doses of arsenic, opium, or foxglove. Even these, however, will not assist him. A grain of opium, for instance, will produce sleep; five grains should produce, therefore, deeper sleep; but, on the contrary, it produces vomiting and delirium. In general, infection may lie latent from a few days to two months; yet we believe, if carefully attended to, some inconvenience will be found almost from the beginning. Dr. Dobson and Dr. Percival, it is admitted, felt inconvenience from first receiving the infection; and we have known people capable of judging make the same observation from their own experience. A bad smell and a bad taste in the

mouth are usually perceived immediately; but as many have continued their accustomed occupations without inconvenience after infection, we must contend that the poison may for a time remain unperceived: the effects of infection are often, however, perceptible at the moment; and, in these cases, we have thought the consequent fever has been more mild.

It is admitted, that if 'the *dose*' of infection be gradually increased, its effects are less violent; but we believe also that habit has some share in depriving it of its sting; and to this, with the attention kept alive, a short exposure only to the source of infection, and quickly returning to the open air, we attribute the impunity which medical men usually experience. The variolous poison is, in Dr. Haygarth's opinion, infectious at a greater distance than the typhous, and the clothes of visitors will not, it is said, convey the latter. This last position is not, however, sufficiently limited: the clothes of *transient* visitors will not convey infection; but where a person, from habit, is able to breathe *for a long time* the miasms with impunity, their clothes will often convey it, especially if they have been confined in drawers or chests. We know that the miasms are invisible, but *on that account* have no reason to think them dissolved in the air. The effluvia of musk and camphor are the same, but probably not dissolved, because their odour remains, and they may be conveyed by clothes: their minuteness affords as satisfactory a reason for their not disturbing the transparency of the atmosphere as their solution. In general we have said that typhus is rarely infectious in a well-ventilated room; and this is also the opinion of Dr. Haygarth, who, with great propriety, depends on open air to dilute or diffuse the poison, rather than on any fancied corrector of it. We are at least positive, from the experience of the Chester hospital, that the poison cannot be conveyed to the adjoining wards of an infirmary with the slightest attention to avoid particular communication.

The practical conclusions are highly important: many of these are blended with the preliminary remarks. We shall transcribe, however, the rules to prevent infectious fevers.

"1. As safety from danger entirely depends on cleanliness and fresh air, the chamber door of a patient ill of an infectious fever, especially in the habitations of the poor, should never be shut; a window in it ought to be generally open during the day, and frequently in the night. Such regulations would be highly useful both to the patient and nurses; but are particularly important previous to the arrival of any visitor.

"2. The bed-curtains should never be close drawn round the patient; but only on the side next the light, so as to shade the face.

"3. Dirty clothes, utensils, &c. should be frequently changed, immediately immersed in cold water, and washed clean when taken out of it.

"4. All discharges from the patient should be instantly removed. The floor near the patient's bed should be rubbed clean every day with a wet mop or cloth.

"5. The air in a sick room has, at the same time, a more infectious quality in some parts of it than in others. Visitors and attendants should avoid the current of the patient's breath,—the air which ascends from his body, especially if the bed-curtains be closed,—and the vapour arising from all evacuations. When medical or other duties require a visitor or nurse to be placed in these situations of danger, infection may be frequently prevented by a temporary suspension of respiration.

"6. Visitors should not go into an infectious chamber with an empty stomach; and, in doubtful circumstances, on coming out, they should blow from the nose and spit from the mouth any infectious poison which may have been drawn in by the breath, and may adhere to those passages." P. 73.

To these we may add, that the nurses and attendants should occasionally go into the open air, and expose themselves, if possible, to a breeze: a little red wine, or a decoction of the Peruvian bark, may be also drank in the worst situations; and, should any bad taste be perceived in the mouth or throat, it should be immediately washed and gargled with brandy, *after which* about a table spoonful should be swallowed. With these circumspections we have faced with impunity the most dangerous situations.

The precautions to prevent the spreading of fever in schools are highly proper; in one instance, however, we saw it spread, notwithstanding these and some other preventives. Yet the original fever was so slight, and the room so well aired, that any one might have safely slept in it during the whole time. None of those admitted into the room were infected; the fever came on in the others after the first patient was recovered, and the symptoms were different. We suspect strongly, therefore, that it was derived from another source.

In another school we saw a typhus of a violent kind. Every precaution was used, and it did not spread. The young lady who was the original patient recovered, and was removed into lodgings, after every thing that had touched her during the fever had been sent away. The family to whom she went had no communication with her; but in about ten days two of the daughters were affected with fever, and at a time when no fever was epidemic. These facts are adduced as exceptions only, and to show that the utmost attention should be employed, at least to remove every appearance of communication.

Fever-patients undoubtedly should be confined to separate wards; and, with care, there is no reason to suppose that the disease will be communicated. The following facts are, however, of importance.

'On submitting these remarks, in the words above stated, to some very intelligent medical friends, I was favoured with these interesting and instructive facts. Sir William Watson informed me that "in St. Thomas's the three physicians I studied under all fell victims to hospital fevers, to wit, Drs. Akenside, Russell, and Grieve, and Mr. Waring, surgeon." To these may be added, according to Dr. Woodville, two other physicians of St. Thomas's, namely, "Drs. Watkinson and Kier, and one of Guy's, Dr. Hinckley." But Dr. Saunders, who confirms all these facts, assures me that "no physician or surgeon in Guy's hospital, for upwards of thirty years, has suffered by a typhous or contagious fever." He explains this difference in a very judicious and satisfactory manner, so as clearly to confirm the doctrine advanced in this letter. "The room in which the out-patients were prescribed for was of a very small dimension, and extremely crowded at St. Thomas's hospital. The room for the out-patients in Guy's was large."

'Again, I have been informed, that "three physicians and a medical student of one of the largest hospitals in London died within the space of eight years of malignant fevers; the causes of which, though they could not be traced to the hospital, were probably derived from it." This intelligence I received from the physician who succeeded the last who died; but he did not chuse that his name or that of the hospital should be mentioned.

'As the cause of these calamities is so fully explained, and as the means of preventing them is so obvious and so easy, I hope that in future no physician, surgeon, or medical student, will ever in future be infected with a typhous fever in an hospital.' P. 92.

The account of the fever-wards at Chester, the regulations to exterminate infectious fever, and those for preventing infectious fevers in the navy and army, are interesting, but must be read in the work itself. This part is too long for an extract, and is incapable of abridgement.

The Appendix contains various documents respecting the yellow fever of Philadelphia, which Dr. Haygarth considers as arising from imported infection: yet we cannot help remarking that the circumstances militate against his doctrine. Vessels arrive from the West-India islands, a stench is perceived, &c. but no one a-board is ill; the first disorder is traced vaguely to an individual, who is without disease; and no person, either an inmate in the ship, or particularly connected with any passenger, is first affected: in short, nothing ensues which can for a moment induce us to hesitate respecting our former opinion.

XIII.—*Specimens and Parts; containing a History of the County of Kent, and a Dissertation on the Laws, from the Reign of Edward the Confessour to Edward the First; of a Topographical, Commercial, Civil, and Nautical History of South Britain, with its gradual and comparative Progress, in Trade, Arts, Polity, Population, and Shipping, from authentic Documents. By Samuel Henshall, Clerk, M.A. &c. 4to. 12s. Boards.* Faulder.

THIS work did not reach us till recently, and, on perusal, we find it little deserving our attention—the author's manner being peculiarly embarrassed, and his information very defective. Prefixed is a map of Kent, constructed from the time of the Conqueror, but in which the Isle of Thanet and the rivers are omitted. It is copied, the author informs us, from the autograph of Doomsday, in which assertion there are two mistakes; since Doomsday ought to have been Doomsday-*book*, and autograph, which is ignorantly used by him, in many passages, for original manuscript, in truth means solely a piece written by the author's own hand;—and that William the Conqueror wrote his survey of the kingdom would be a new piece of information.

In a prefatory prospectus Mr. Henshall thus explains himself:

'This history will be comparative and progressive, will consist of six grand parts or divisions, each containing various chapters, or dissertations, on different subjects. The first division, or period, will comprehend the presumed state of the nation, on the subjects we treat upon, in the reigns of Edward the Confessor, William, and the succeeding monarchs, previous to the first parliament summoned in 1265, assembled probably in 1295.—Here our foundation must be established; and we wish to procure every article that can render it compact, solid, and irremoveable.—But though our first æra will occupy two quarto volumes, one comprising a topographical description of South Britain, the other its civil history, no other distinctive period will extend beyond half a volume, till we arrive at the eighteenth century, if Providence permits so distant a continuation. It is presumed that nine similar numbers will complete our first æra; for in subsequent fasciculos, published every three months, the topographical and historical description of two, or occasionally three or more counties, will be given. It is the wish of the author to continue his maps on a similar plan with the specimen exhibited; but, if the work meets not with encouragement from the public, he certainly must decline the heavy expence of engraving, abridge his topographical descriptions, and compress his arranged matter. To ascertain this question, he will naturally calculate the number of copies sold previous to the continuation of this work, or the number of subscribers who please to transmit their names to Mr. Faulder, Bond-street, as patrons of a similar continuation for the counties of Surrey and Sussex, including an historical dissertation on "Ranks and Services,"

during the same period, or any other of the eight subsequent numbers.—Our next division will extend to the æra generally ascribed to modern history, the conclusion of the reign of the seventh Henry. In this, and every subsequent division, our dissertations will particularly specify the certain advances in each department, since the preceding statement. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, terminated nearly with the lives of Elizabeth, and William the Third, supply us with proper opportunities for other divisions of our history, and a retrospective and comparative view of our progress in trade, arts, polity, population, and shipping. The present century furnishes such extensive materials in commerce and science, exhibits such astonishing proofs, even of a quadruple increase in our imports and exports, our revenue and shipping, our elegant accommodations with the luxurious means of indulgence, and such extent of refinement and presumed civilization, as, at least, approximates to a frivolity of manners, that we shall pause and retrace our situation at the close of the reign of George the Second, according to our established arrangement. The sixth part, or division, will comprehend our farther general progress, comparative advance, and unexampled extent of commerce, delicacy, and riches, and will conclude with the eighteenth century, in the important reign of a mild, merciful, and beloved prince, the patron of arts, navigation, and science, the father of his country.' P. iv.

We need not stop to indicate the grammatical errors in this extract, but shall at least submit it to this profound antiquary to explain how a parliament could be summoned 1265, and meet thirty years after?

Yet another specimen, and we have done.

'In the kingdom of Great-Britain there are two grand divisions, South and North Britain; a second separation into the nations of England, Scotland, and Wales; and a distinctive subdivision of each into particular districts, or counties. To ascertain the precise period, when this arrangement was adopted, is foreign to our purpose; but we have certain proofs that little alteration has taken place in the demarcation of their boundaries, from the reign of Edward the Confessor to the present day. In each particular county there were still subordinate sections, as laths, rapes, wapentakes, baronies, ridings, hundreds, or manors; but the distinction of parishes, or the regular payment of tithes to a particular church, was certainly not generally established when the autograph of Domesday was compiled.

'That portion of the isle which engages our immediate attention is situated in the south-eastern extremity. It extends from fifty degrees fifty-three minutes, northern latitude, to fifty-one thirty minutes; comprehends the focus from whence the English meridian is calculated, and extends one degree nineteen minutes and a half easternly, three minutes westernly from such centre; or, to speak in more intelligible language to an English reader, is sixty-five miles in length from its eastern to western extremities, and forty in breadth, from the isle of Grain to Romney.

'The gently-swelling tide of the Thames bounds it on the north,

the Downs and the Straits of Dover on the east, the extremity of the English channel and Sussex on the south, and the counties of Sussex and Surrey border on its western line. The form of Kent is irregular, but it approximates nearest to a trapezium, or four-sided figure, whose eastern base is forty-one miles; whose northern shore sixty-three miles; whose intersecting side with Surrey twenty-five miles; and whose length, from Baseing to the extremity of Romney Marsh, is forty-three miles.

'This county constitutes nearly one-fortieth part of South Britain, contains more than one thousand five hundred and seventy-eight square miles of English statute measure, and one million ten thousand five hundred and sixty-one acres, exclusive of such augmentation as must arise from inequality of surface. For farther particulars we refer the reader to an annexed map, with copious explanations; and shall proceed with the more immediate object of our pursuit, the existing state of Kent, as reported by the commissioners to the Norman prince, from the collected evidence of counties and hundreds.

'To avoid the confusion that would arise from pursuing the unconnected entries in Domesday, or that inaccurate perspective of objects or manners which the perambulation of a county presents, we must necessarily adopt some systematical arrangement, if we would comprehensively convey our presumed information, or beneficially transmit the documents of antiquity. For such strong reasons, we shall endeavour to collect and concentrate each scattered ray that may possibly illumine an obscured medium, or enable the judicious and well-directed eye to receive with accuracy and precision such image as a mirror of considerable diameter may reflect from distant objects. On such principles we shall survey the eastern hemisphere, its general horizon, primary planet, constellations, and stars of various magnitude; or, in simple language, East Kent, with its prevailing laws, customs, and manners, its conspicuous city, boroughs, towns, villages, and hamlets. We shall afterwards contemplate on the western district, pursuing the same plan.' P. 1.

Some learned inquiries concerning Saxon antiquity are elegantly denominated, p. 12, 'babblers, continually yelping after Saxon liberty and the Saxon constitution.' Nor is this dignified style to be wondered at, when clerk Henshall, in imitation of P. P. clerk of this parish, attempts to establish, in many passages, that the clergy alone were free; and denies that the celebrated Magna Charta contains any germ of liberty, except that the barons were to act towards their subjects as the king acted towards them! If another specimen be wanted of the author's historical style, the following sentence will suffice:

'Thus a vegetating stream, that, flowing in proper channels, might have fertilised the country, stagnated and inert, yields the nauseous and pernicious weeds of the green mantling pool.' P. 33.

This antiquarian trumpery, in defence of slavery, was proba-

bly written in the search after preferment, and we dismiss it with our best wishes; for our author is so dull, that, in a leaden age, he might have aspired to no small eminence.

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## POLITICS, &c.

ART. 14.—*Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, on Mr. Grey's Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation, on Wednesday, March* 25, 1801. 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1801.

THIS is a very important publication. From internal evidence we should conclude that it was brought forwards under the immediate inspection of the speaker; and it is interesting, not only as affording many prominent marks of his peculiar character as a speaker and a statesman, but as conveying his real sentiments on political subjects, or at least those sentiments by which he wishes posterity to judge of his conduct. The chief feature in the speech is its plainness: the speaker aims not at any ornaments of oratory; he wishes only to be clearly understood. His adversaries have brought forward charges in which he, in common with others of his majesty's late ministers, is involved; which charges he endeavours to refute; and concludes with a plain statement of his reasons for declining any farther concern in the management of public affairs.

The charge he principally endeavours to invalidate is, 'the inefficient and disastrous manner in which the present war has been conducted.' In opposition to this charge he accumulates all the advantages we have obtained by sea and land over our enemies; and palliates, as well as he can, the ill successes which have attended several of our military expeditions. On the latter point, however, we were surprised to meet with the language adopted in the following citation, as to the situation of our army, at such a period of the war, and after an invasion of the enemy's country.

'The hurried state in which the regiments that had been formed from the English militia went to Holland in the autumn of 1799, and the indispensable necessity of sending them in that condition, to support the first division, which had landed, under sir Ralph Abercrombie, are points of notoriety, the officers and men having joined and met for the first time almost on the very day of their embarkation, and in many cases before their new clothing, arms, and necessaries, could be supplied. Owing to the extreme severity of the service, and of the weather during the short campaign in that country, these regiments returned, at the end of November, in great want of clothing, of new arms, and requisites of every description; and it was then the unanimous opinion and report of all the superior

officers, that however noble and truly British the spirit they had manifested in Holland, still that officers and men, who had been brought together without any previous knowledge of each other, and from a great variety of different regiments of militia, on their return from abroad, under the circumstances I have mentioned, would necessarily require some time, even after their wants could be supplied, to ground themselves in military discipline and tactics, and to acquire that knowledge and confidence in each other which would enable them to act together with regularity or advantage in the field.' P. 17.

That an army returned from a military expedition, in which many pitched and bloody battles had been fought, should, in the sixth year of a war, require to be grounded in military discipline and tactics, is a strange confession; yet it is confirmed by the express testimony of the commander, of which the speaker availed himself in the most extraordinary manner. A certain number of troops was required for an expedition up the Mediterranean: application was made to the duke of York on this subject, and his answer was read to the house in the following words:

" It will therefore be evident, that, although the number of men required may be embarked, yet I must feel it a duty to give it as my decided opinion, that there are not any of the corps mentioned in a state for actual service, and that unless they are allowed uninterruptedly to employ the ensuing two months in equipment, formation, and instruction, little advantage is to be expected from their services against the enemy, however ably conducted. I shall therefore conclude my remarks on these corps by expressing an earnest hope that it may suit the arrangements in agitation not to call upon them until the expiration of the period above-mentioned, when, confiding in the zeal and ability of the generals and other officers in command of them, I think I may safely pronounce that they will be in a state to act as his majesty may be pleased to direct." P. 21.

That our army should have been in so deplorable a condition reflects no honour upon those who have had the management of it from the beginning of the war. Scarcely any but an ex-minister, or a member in opposition, would have chosen to speak so openly upon so delicate a subject. A confession on the nature of continental politics seems to have been equally unguarded and injudicious.

' It must also be recollected, that although we were then acting with Austria against a common enemy, no alliance or binding plan of concert or co-operation actually existed between the two courts.' P. 24.

With an army described as we have seen it, and without any plan of co-operation against the common enemy, what could be expected but what actually occurred in Holland and in Italy, that our troops should be sailing on the Mediterranean unsought for by our allies, and ignorant of their destination.

To the same sincerity of the ex-minister we are indebted for another piece of information. The command of the troops in the

Mediterranean had been offered to and accepted by sir Charles Stuart; but he begged leave to relinquish the charge on a ground submitted to the ex-minister, which he read before the house, of which the following is the most material part:

"The same point of honour, the good of this country, and, I may add, the humanity which gives rise to these feelings, render it impossible for me to obey the particular instruction concerning the introduction of a Russian force into Malta." P. 28.

This is intended as a proof by the speaker, that if Russia had remained faithful to her alliance, the conquest of Malta would have been beneficial to her.

Having, from a positive view of the conduct of the war, endeavoured to exculpate himself from the charge of mismanagement, the speaker ventures boldly on the arduous task of contrasting it with the famous war under the auspices of the late premier's father. The successes and reverses of that celebrated period are enumerated; and upon the most vague and trifling species of comparison, he does not blush to affirm that the present William Pitt 'need not be afraid to transmit his fame to posterity as the companion of that of his illustrious father.'

'Sic canibus catulos similes sic matribus hædos
Norat.'——

How different the conduct of the father and the son it is needless here to expatiate upon. The one, with a dispirited nation, created the most powerful resources, and conquered an enemy glorying in success, prior to his having been placed at the helm of public affairs; the other, with inexhaustible treasures thrown at his feet, with the unbounded confidence of the nation, with all Europe under his subsidies, was baffled in every attempt against the same country, while his so highly-boasted conquests were chiefly over the unresisting colonies of his own allies. The father produced great effects with small means—the son, with great means, produced small effects. The one made his name renowned in every cabinet of Europe; and, on retiring from office, was followed with addresses from all parts of the island:—the other was scarcely known abroad but by his largesses, and has retired from public affairs without notice. Both were distinguished by eloquence; but the former commanded by the dignity of his sentiments, the latter attracted notice by the fluency of his speech. The power of the father was firmly seated in the hearts and heads of the people; that of the son was confined to the mere fascination of words. As long as the name of Englishman remains, the speeches of the one will be remembered, though they are eclipsed by the glory of his actions:—the eloquence of the other leaves no traces behind it; and his name will be recollected alone, from its connexion with the increased burdens of his country.

The common topics on the justice and necessity of the war are now introduced; and the nation is consoled by a comparison of its state with that of the enemy, as if the calamities of civil war were

unknown among ourselves; while, at the same time, the real question, What would have been our situation if we had been content with our insular advantages, and, instead of engaging in all the phrensy of continental politics, had left the French to manage for themselves their own interior concerns? is strangely, and, as it should seem, purposely forgotten. So far, indeed, from thinking of so rational a comparison, 'we claim merit to ourselves (says the speaker) in having, by every persuasion and every means in our power, endeavoured to impress upon the minds of every court in Europe the necessity of energy, frankness, and vigour, to resist those calamities which there was no chance of averting by any other weapons.' This impression has cost one prince his crown, has thrown Holland into the arms of the French republic, has cut off the wings of the Austrian eagle, has ruined Portugal, and totally changed the face of Italy. France has acquired territory infinitely more valuable than all our colonial conquests together, is become the arbiter of Europe, and a military republic. The subsidising of Prussia, Russia, the emperor, and the smaller states of Germany, prove the fertility of our resources, but they prove nothing else: while the little stability of our alliances with these powers should have tempered the self-approbation of the speaker on the subject of continental politics.

The last point is the retirement of the late ministers from public duty, which is attributed solely and explicitly to the Catholic question. The general scepticism of the public on this head will not be removed by the bare assertions here advanced; and we can have no doubt that, in a few years, the cause of their retirement will receive much additional light from explanations given by others of the party. The Indemnity-bill will be a clue, in the mean time, to such as speculate on the interior manœuvres of the cabinet; and, far from ascribing 'disgust, or a spirit of faction,' to the ministerial seceders, many may think them prudent for withdrawing at a time when the difficulties of their station were increasing, and an arrangement could be made to secure them from responsibility for their past actions.

The opposition is treated with the utmost contempt by the speaker; who concludes, as he began, by terming the present 'a vigorous and successful war.' We must at least, therefore, give them credit for consummate boldness; since not a single object has been attained, throughout the whole progress of it, which was held forth at its commencement;—the confederacy having been baffled in all its attempts; and France, from the time we attacked her, having been rising in fame and increasing in territory.

ART. 15.—*The Speech of the Honorable Charles James Fox, on the Motion for an Enquiry into the State of the Nation, on the 25th of March*, 1801. *To which is added an Appendix, illustrating some Passages of the Speech, and contributing to the Means of forming a full Judgment upon the most momentous Questions that agitate the Public in the present Crisis.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Debrett.

On the question for considering the state of the nation, the house, for the first time, beheld the ex-premier under its gallery, but still listened with the utmost attention to his reasons for resisting the in-

quiry. He was followed by Mr. Fox, who, after a slight remark on the flippancy of Mr. Pitt in terming him a new member, and on the fatuity of his opponent's ministry, entered, with his usual perspicuity and energy, into the question with respect to the Northern powers. Mr. Pitt's speech was divided into five heads; the whole of which, by the present orator, are compressed into three, namely, the proposition that free bottoms make free goods, the contraband of war, and the right of search under convoy. These points have been generally comprehended under the phrase of the neutral principle; which was re-baptised under the ex-premier, and denominated the jacobinical principle. This variation gave Mr. Fox an additional opportunity of triumphing, by tracing the origin of the neutral system to two of the most despotic sovereigns in Europe—Frederic of Prussia and the empress of Russia, and by chastising the ignorance, temerity, and insolence of his rival, in the following manner:

'In reality, sir, the honorable gentleman's indiscriminate cry of Jacobin! jacobin! to every thing and person that he dislikes, has brought an utter contempt upon this continual cant. He has worn it out;—and all the terrors he would conjure up from it are become an absolute bugbear. With far more grace and likelihood might this term "jacobin" be retorted upon himself, and several indeed of his own measures,—of which one of the most recent might, perhaps, in the judgment of many (though I am not disposed so to describe it), be considered as strictly such: I mean the honorable gentleman's late communication to the Catholics of Ireland, upon the event of his resignation.' P. 7.

As a general question, Mr. Fox denies, with the greatest propriety, that free bottoms can make free goods. Into the discussion of the mere abstract question upon this subject he does not pretend to enter, but gives a clear statement of it, as dependent upon facts and treaties.

'The only difficulty would be, which to condemn as most monstrous,—a neutral, pretending to the right of supplying one belligerent with all the means of mischief to another; or a belligerent, insisting upon an universal right of search in all cases, and making innocent commerce the sport of its whim, in express contempt of specific regulation. It is between these extremes that the general interest of the commonwealth of nations finds the true equitable medium; as the numberless treaties between the different states of Europe sufficiently demonstrate.' P. 11.

The contraband of war is definitively assigned to be the mere creature of convention, to be determined by the specific articles of the negotiation; and the ex-premier's frivolous attempt to abrogate the obligation of treaties, in the discussion of this part of the subject, is pointed out with the disdain it merits.

'Why, sir, can there be a clearer proof what the honorable gentleman thinks of this house, than his offering such an argument as this, in palliation of this new war, which his wantonness and want of the commonest discretion has brought upon the country?' P. 14.

The important question, the right of search, is placed in its true position, and is discussed with that solidity of argument which leaves nothing further to be desired by the hearer.

'With respect to the third point, the matter of "search"—that, under sound and discreet limitations, is certainly a right of belligerents; but, pushed to extremity, it becomes, like many other rights, a gross wrong. The right of search, as on the one hand it does not rest merely on unwritten law, so neither on the other is it a matter to be arbitrarily exercised. The thing, as well as the manner, is defined by strict stipulation. As to the claim of convoy, beyond all doubt, if the privilege of convoy were abused in protecting the trade of our enemy, that would be a very fit subject of representation. As far as we are acquainted with the precautions intended by the Northern powers, they seem to have been fully aware of such a possible fraud; and there is nothing of this sort which, in my opinion, remonstrance and reason were not capable of settling. Even the presence of convoy would not prevent search, and justifiably too, in what the treaties call "cases of lawful suspicion;—but, after all, your final satisfaction may as well depend upon the convoy as the ship's documents. A sound discretion will be influenced by the nature of the case. It is not "search upon lawful or urgent suspicion," so well provided for in different treaties, that makes any part of the question; it is the unqualified assumption of an universal right to search in all possible cases, or, in other words, subjecting the commerce of the world to wayward, vexatious, harassing, insulting interruptions and inquiries, without stint or distinction.—This is the grievance; and, to judge of its justice, I ask you, Would you endure such treatment yourselves from any state upon earth? Would you? There is no principle by which you can so well attain the knowledge of relative justice, as to put yourself into the place of another, and decide upon another by yourself. The extent of what you contend for would, if retaliated, lay at the discretion of any petty power, not only all the free course of your trade, but also the proud spirit and the high feeling which so naturally belong to your naval ascendency. Suppose the king of Spain at war with Algiers. If a case can be imagined more likely than another to reconcile you to this humiliation, it would be, I suppose, in favour of a Christian king of Spain, contending with pirates, and robbers, and infidel barbarians. A British fleet of merchantmen, in the lawful pursuits of trade, to your own islands, for instance, of Minorca or Malta, or destined to any other of the Mediterranean ports, though convoyed by a squadron of English men of war, would, according to these arguments, be liable to be stopped, ransacked, teazed, and insulted, by the meanest cutter in the Spanish navy. Such would be the fate to which your own maxims would expose you, unless you frankly acknowledge that you have one measure for yourselves, and another for the rest of the world. Whatever the shifting gale of luck and fortune may suggest to feeble minds, be assured that justice is the best policy, and the soundest principle.' P. 16.

Having, in the most masterly manner, pointed out the ex-premier's folly in involving the nation in a war, which, by common

prudence, might easily have been avoided, Mr. Fox proceeds to answer Mr. Dundas on the boasted successes which the war has evinced in our favour;—a war undertaken, it seems, for

'the purpose of "conquering the colonies and destroying the commerce of France." The restoration of monarchy—the overthrow of jacobin principles—the abasement of France, and confining her to her ancient limits—the balance of power—the cause of law, order, and religion—all these are gone by; and the splendid reveries that were soothed by such contemplations are fallen, alas! and sunk down to the capture of ships and of tropical settlements.' P. 20.

After expatiating on the absurd comparison made by Mr. Dundas between the present and the Seven-Years' war, Mr. Fox concludes his remarks on this part of the ex-minister's defence in the following animated manner:

'I defy imbecillity itself to string together a more motley pack of excuses than the honorable gentleman has laid before the house this night. Amsterdam had been taken, if sir Ralph Abercrombie had landed on the 16th instead of the 27th of August.—Sir Charles Stuart's dislike to the Russians protracted Sir Ralph's departure for the Mediterranean.—Ten thousand Irish militia were to come to England, and ten thousand English to go to Ireland.—Some of the troops wanted their new coats—some their arms.—One expedition sailed on the 8th of April, took shelter on the 13th, and re-sailed on the 24th.—It was designed to assist the Austrians, but the Austrians would not be assisted.—There was no plan or concert between the two courts.—An account current with the Seven-Years' war; took more ships than lord Chatham, and more islands.—St. Domingo was unhealthy and rather expensive; but it was a good market.—This war has opened worlds of new markets.—Returns, even to a man, of the new-raised corps at Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Portugal; and the total of your force, now and in 1797, with a most comfortable exactness.—The history of England from 1755 to 1762—from Severndroog to the Havannah;—In a word, such a series of insulting puerilities as no house of parliament was, ever before, entertained with, under the name of a defence.' P. 30.

One ex-minister, it seems, took a pride in detailing the successes of the war; while the ex-premier himself was as positive in the prosperity, comfort, and multiplied happiness of the country. To the exultations of the latter Mr. Fox opposes the increased debt of the country, its increased poor's-rates and taxes, the support of one-sixth of the people by charity, the excessive infringements upon the rights of their whole body, and the invasions and rebellions in another country. The evils introduced by the last naturally lead our orator to the consideration of the late change in the administration; on which, with the exception of earl St. Vincent, little praise is bestowed, with respect to any of the new members.

'As to the mere change, it is true that no change can be for the worse; for I defy the evil genius of the country to pick out an equal number of men from any part of England whose measures

could, in the same length of time, reduce the country to a more deplorable state than that in which the retired ministers have left it.' P. 40.

A change of system seems, however, improbable; and, from this topic, the speaker proceeds to the subject of Catholic emancipation. Here, as we naturally expected from a man of an enlarged mind, a liberal concession of the measure is recommended; but the inconsistency of the ex-premier is justly held up to censure.

'If the honorable gentleman did not make himself acquainted with his sovereign's opinion, upon this point, long before the proposed introduction of his meditated system, he was guilty of a breach of duty. In what possible way can the honorable gentleman be exculpated from the charge of gross irreverence to the king, or of abusing so many millions of his people? He denies that any positive pledge was given to the Catholics at the union; but admits that it was natural for them to cherish expectation from it. Natural!—Why, unless they reasoned very deeply indeed upon the honorable gentleman's mind, such an expectation was inevitable. In the nature of things they must have looked upon it as a certainty.' P. 45.

The explicit language held upon the right of Catholics may be properly contrasted with that of his opponent.

'As a right, the honorable gentleman denies the claim of the Catholics. He would give them nothing as a right—but he thinks the concession expedient. This, sir, is not my sense of the Catholic claim. I would grant it, not merely because it is expedient, but because it is just. Those who press the doctrine of virtual representation to the utmost lengths, never ventured to carry it so far as even to pretend that it extended to the privation of the Catholic body. Catholics, in my opinion, have rights as well as Protestants. They have both rights conjointly; not resting upon light or frail grounds, but forming the very base and foundation of our civil system; and the government which does not acknowledge these rights, the rights of man in the strictest sense of the word (notwithstanding the constant clamour against, and abuse of, that phrase) not as theories and speculations, but as active and living principles, is not, and cannot be, a legitimate government.' P. 48.

The change of ministry is again adverted to—the negotiations for peace sifted—Bonaparte's conduct contrasted with that of the late cabinet—their statistical imbecillity pointed out—and the necessity of an inquiry into the state of the nation urged in the strongest manner possible;—after which the whole is summed up in a most animated address to both sides of the house.

'Those who think that what I have stated are not evils, or arising from any defect of wisdom, of vigour, of foresight, of prudence, or of any of the qualities that constitute the essentials to an able and capable government—but that they are only slips of conduct, mere flaws of accident, affording no presumption against the king's ministers, whom this house is constituted not to control or call to account, but to support and justify upon all occasions—such persons

will, of course, vote against this inquiry. On the other hand, those who think that the misfortunes brought upon the country by the late ministers are the necessary consequence of original folly in the schemes, and of imbecillity in the execution; who think that the primary duty of this house is to guard the rights and protect the interests of the people,—not to fawn upon power, and be guided in all things by those whom the king nominates as his servants; who are of opinion that the dreadful state in which the country finds itself is not more owing to the misconduct of administration than to the absence from this house of that constitutional jealousy of the influence of the crown which ought to be the first characteristic of a house of commons, and from its uniform discountenance of all retrospection and revision—Those who think that the vice of the plans and principles that have brought the country to its present situation, is cruelly aggravated by that boundless confidence which this house has uniformly shown, and which, instead of deterring from evil or doubtful projects by the fear of punishment, operates as an encouragement to dangerous speculation, by the assurance of indemnity and safety—Those who think that this question ought not to depend upon regard to the late or to the present administration, to predilections or antipathies for that side of the house or this, but solely on the true state of the nation—Those who think that the reign of confidence has had full play—that the principle has been fairly tried and found wanting—who see, in its sad effects, that it is not more unconstitutional than impolitic—and who firmly believe, as I believe, that the shortest and surest method of redeeming the country in the present crisis, is for this house to resort to the good old customs of our ancestors—to resume in the worst the jealous vigilance of the best times—to prove to both king and people, that blind submission must give way to zealous inquisition—and to manifest that the support of government must be accompanied by inquiry into its conduct: Those who think thus, will vote, as I shall, for the motion of my honorable friend.' p. 64.

The house decided against the inquiry; not quite a sixth part of the representatives of the empire being for it, and more than two to one of those who voted being against it. Yet, if the arguments and the eloquence of the orator made so little impression on the feelings of his immediate hearers, his want of success must be amply compensated by the effect which it cannot fail to produce on every reader in the retirement of his closet. Truth opposed to sophistry, argument to declamation, extensive views of politics to mere cabinet-intrigue, are the characteristics of the speech before us, in opposition to that which preceded it; and even those who resisted its eloquence could not but admire the talents, the integrity, the judgement, and the knowledge of the great politician who delivered it.

ART. 16.—*Reply to the Rev. Herbert Marsh's Vindication of a late Work, styled, A History of the Politics of Great-Britain and France. By William Belsham.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Robinsons. 1801.

The vindication written by Mr. Marsh of his own work contained so many severe reflexions against his opponent, that we cannot be surprised the latter should, in his turn, once more dip his pen in the gall

of controversy. We regret that either has professed so mean an opinion of the other's talents. In the present irritation of their minds they are incapable of appreciating their respective merits aright; and we, who are impartial observers of the contest, can see abundant reason for opposing the censure with which each would endeavour to load the other;

Et vitulâ tu dignus, et hic.

Mr. Belsham can now advance some 'indications of the very low estimation in which he holds Mr. Marsh as a politician,' can talk of 'the long and tedious details of his two fatiguing volumes—his pedantic and pompous history—of his gross ignorance of human-nature—of his contemptible cavils—his sophistical and abusive declamation—his malignant insinuations—his despicable quirks and quibbles;' he can term him 'more properly a wrangler than a reasoner;' and give the following very unjust description of his adversary's powers: 'This scholastic politician is as incapable of comprehending the force of Mr. Fox's genius, or of estimating the effects of his policy, as a beetle, on the summit of Teneriffe, of including in his minute survey the magnificent extent of the horizon.' The epithet 'scholastic' is introduced, we presume, because Mr. Marsh is a scholar, and, 'we may add, a brave one too;' and a residence in Cambridge is, perhaps, supposed incompatible with the office of an historian. Yet surely Cambridge is as favourable to such studies as Bedford; and though few persons have availed themselves more of the advantages which Cambridge affords than Mr. Marsh, yet it should be recollected that his life has not been that of a recluse student. He quitted Cambridge very soon after his first degree, and his university residence since that time has been only occasional. He is distinguished indeed for his studies, but he has also enriched his mind by travel, and availed himself of the opportunities afforded him of a very extensive insight into men and manners. Whatever objections we may have to some points in Mr. Marsh's politics, to deny him a place in the first rank of political writers appears to us highly preposterous, and can only have been refused him by our author from the irritation of the moment.

As to the controversy itself, the circumstances of the contending countries have been so changed within the last two years, that the most hot-headed declaimers, in support of the justice and necessity of the war, begin to relax a little from the asperity of their language; and the dismission of the late minister from his office has contributed, in no small degree, to correct the wild opinions embraced by a very great number of this strong ex-ministerial party. Still the nation is not sufficiently cool to form an impartial opinion; and the arguments adduced by Mr. Marsh and Mr. Belsham will, in general, be received by the reader rather from their coincidence with his previous sentiments than from any accurate attention to their original merit. The inferior points at issue between the rival antagonists we would willingly postpone *ad Græcas Calendas*.

ART. 17.—*Opinions of his Majesty's Ministers respecting the French Revolution, the War, &c. from* 1790 *to* 1801, *Chronologically arranged. Selected from their Speeches in Parliament, with Extracts from the Speeches of the Opposition. Compiled by James Bannantine.* 8vo. 4s. *sewed.* Ridgway.

The different opinions on the calamitous war in which this king-

dom has been engaged would, if we could be for a moment callous to the miseries of suffering humanity, excite nothing more than a smile of contempt against the persons who were either so strangely deluded, or who attempted to delude others, by the idlest pretexts that folly ever invented. There was a cause for the ten years' war at Troy, and the commonest soldier could assign it. The crusades, founded on a still more ridiculous basis, held out an object whose attainment was feasible;—but the present is not a definable war. The expence, misery, and bloodshed, occasioned by it, are certain; yet the causes of it are still uncertain, or assigned by ambiguous phrases. Every year has seen a new cause invented; and the editor of this work has, very usefully for the public, compiled, from a variety of speeches delivered annually in parliament, the contradictory opinions of eminent persons on this important topic. As there must be among our readers several who wish for a decisive answer to the questions, What we are, and what we have been, fighting for? the light thrown upon them by this publication will be very agreeable, and a good opinion may hence be formed of the consistency of many public characters.

## RELIGION.

ART. 18.—*A practical Sermon on the Nature of Public Worship. By Thomas Sanders, A.B. &c.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1801.

To the publication of this sermon the vice-chancellor of the university of Oxford has affixed his imprimatur, and we may therefore conclude that the innovations recommended by several writers of the sister university do not meet with encouragement at Oxford. The sermon is a panegyric on the liturgy of the church of England, which does the preacher great credit; and we shall transcribe one part on a very important portion of our devotional services; though we are sorry to add that it will not meet with the unanimous approbation even of the dignitaries of the church.

'The Athanasian creed, as asserting and attempting to elucidate that fundamental doctrine of Christianity, the Holy Trinity, is appointed to be read only on stated and solemn occasions. In this the necessity of our belief in the Catholic faith is declared to be essential to salvation, and that it must be kept "whole and undefiled," under the commanding and awful sanction of our perishing everlastingly. The Catholic faith is thus defined, "that we worship one God in Trinity, and Trinity in Unity," agreeably to the uniform tenor of Scripture, which, together with the doctrine of the incarnation, the work of the Redeemer, the resurrection from the dead, and a future judgement, constitute the substance of the creed. The damnatory clauses which it contains, and which have furnished such frequent matter for objection, are authorised by the express language of Christ himself in his commission to his apostles: "He that believeth and is baptised shall be saved; but he that believeth not shall be damned:" and the custom of pronouncing anathemas against unbelievers prevailed in the earliest ages of the church. Since, therefore, this creed forms a branch of our liturgy, and since it inculcates doctrines and sets forth denunciations which, whatever the dictates of fallible reason or the gainsayings of impious men may teach, are in perfect agreement

with revelation, it is highly improper to omit its rehearsal, as is sometimes the case, and no less sinful to join in it irreverently.' P. 19.

Thus the bishop of Lincoln and the university of Oxford have completely committed themselves on the subject of this famous creed; the former declaring it 'to be presumptuous and unnecessary to utter' these damnatory clauses; the latter, by this preacher, asserting that only impious men can teach that such clauses are not in perfect agreement with revelation. It is high time that the authority of the church should interfere; and it would be better to prohibit all remarks in future on this creed, than to suffer such contradictory opinions to be promulgated by those to whom the laity should look up with attention and reverence.

ART. 19.—*The Unjustifiableness of Cruelty to the Brute Creation, and the Obligations we are under to treat it with Lenity and Compassion: a Sermon.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1801.

Sermons on this subject should be continually delivered from the pulpit. And if the evangelical and methodistical clergy would interweave remarks of the same nature before their numerous congregations, we should hope that some species of barbarities, such as cock-fighting, throwing at cocks, bull-baiting, and the present mode of killing oxen, would cease to be a stigma on the English nation. We do not see any propriety in the author's sanctioning what he calls 'the generous and manly pleasures of the chace.' If indeed the objects of this sport were tigers or wolves committing depredations on a neighbourhood, and only to be pursued with danger, there might be some grounds for such epithets; but the preservation of a stag or a fox, merely for the pleasure of following them with a pack of dogs, is, in our estimation, just as barbarous as bull-baiting or cock-fighting. The exercise of our dominion over animals is justified by the command of God, and the end of it is our convenience and subsistence; it is abused when we put an animal to torture merely for our amusement, or for some trifling gratification of the stomach. The false sensibility which is occasionally shocked at the sight of an innocent animal is properly contrasted with the boldness of the adulteress, as exhibited in the same character—the character we mean of the woman who faints at a frog and inflicts the deepest wound on her husband's peace and happiness. The preacher, we doubt not, will continue to 'open his mouth for the dumb;' and every teacher of Christianity should follow such an example.

ART. 20.—*A Dialogue between a Churchman and a Methodist, in which the Grounds of Communion and Separation are fully examined, and the principal Points of Difference fairly discussed; with a Reference to Scripture.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1801.

The churchman vindicates the doctrines and discipline of his church with great propriety; while the methodist fights a very poor battle, and yields at last without exciting any interest in his favour during the contest. From the very onset we see clearly how the whole will terminate; and the form of dialogue, instead of enlivening, weakens the composition. We should recommend to the writer,

either to strike out the methodist altogether, or to give more life and spirit to his part of the conversation.

ART. 21.—*On preaching the Word.—A Discourse delivered at the Visitation of the Right Worshipful Robert Markham, M. A. &c. at Doncaster, June 5, 1801. By John Lowe, M. A. &c. Published at the Request of several of the Clergy.* 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

As the archdeacon and the clergy of the deanery did not unanimously request the printing of this discourse, the preacher might have been contented with the compliment paid him by several of his brethren, and been satisfied with the effect it probably produced on his audience. The instructions to the clergy are sound and good; but such only we presume as are common at every visitation.

ART. 22.—*A Farewell Sermon, preached at Market-Deeping, on Sunday April 6, 1800. By the Rev. Robert Lascelles Carr, late Curate of that Parish, and now Curate of the Parish of All Saints in Stamford.* 4to. 1s. West *and* Hughes.

'The author of the following sermon believes the doctrines which it contains to be just: He knows the sentiments to be sincere. He has not endeavoured to heighten or set off either with the splendors of artificial eloquence: wishing to be felt rather than to be admired; and to produce conviction rather than to excite applause.—He hopes that his obscurity will screen him from the severity of criticism; but should the case prove otherwise, he knows that a consciousness of good intention will enable him to bear it. And should the Almighty bless this humble effort to the edification of any one fellow-creature, he shall consider himself amply rewarded.' P. 3.

The sermon appears to have been very proper when the preacher was on the point of taking leave of his congregation; but we cannot say that it has any pretensions to farther notice. The curate speaks with great gratitude of the application of his parishioners to obtain for him the rectory, and with becoming humility on his own claims to preferment.

## MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 23.—*The Family Physician; or, Domestic Medical Friend: containing Plain and Practical Instructions for the Prevention and Cure of Diseases, according to the newest Improvements and Discoveries; with a Series of Chapters on collateral Subjects; comprising every Thing relative to the Theory and Principles of the Medical Art, necessary to be known by the private Practitioner. The Whole adapted to the Use of those Heads of Families who have not had a Classical or Medical Education. By Alexander Thomson, M.D. &c.* 12mo. 6s. *Boards.* Phillips. 1801.

The neat and perspicuous language of Dr. Thomson is well adapted to familiarise abstruse subjects; and to convey, in a pleasing manner, philosophical truths. We are much mistaken if we have not often met him before on his own and other grounds; nor have we had reason to blame his general knowledge, or to detract from his

judgement, in his professional capacity. Here, however, our commendation must end. The Family Physician should proceed no farther than Mr. Parkinson has done, or than Tissot did before him—point out the sources and the appearances of danger, and direct the minuter management, before a medical practitioner can attend. Beyond this the uneducated assistant cannot proceed with safety. In professional points it is easy to be plausible, and yet to err; for, without knowledge and experience, discrimination is difficult, and the want of it highly dangerous.

Dr. Thomson's career is bold and extensive. The whole of the science is comprised in this closely printed volume, and, of course, no subject can be examined at a great length. It is singular, however, to observe how much is condensed within these narrow limits; and, we ought to add, that no space is misemployed by trifling or useless disquisitions. The first book relates to physiology, and what, in the institutions of medicine, is called the hygieine, the means of preserving health, including a very neat, and, in general, a very correct, dietetic system. The second book is on the management and diseases of children; the third on febrile diseases; and the fourth, entitled 'on inflammations,' includes every other disorder treated of, even the surgical diseases, and those slighter complaints which are seldom the objects of the medical practitioner. We see nothing greatly to blame in this general view of the practice of medicine, excepting, perhaps, the very inert method of treating putrid fevers. From the necessary conciseness of the directions, however, this manual must be often a very imperfect guide. A short and comprehensive view of the contents and virtues of the more important English mineral waters forms a part also of this book, whose title is too little descriptive of its contents; and a chapter is added on the health of soldiers and seamen. These remarks are, on the whole, judicious and proper. In the directions for bathing children, Dr. Thomson advises to begin with the heat of 98°, and to drop only one degree in each month. This plan is by far too relaxing, and two degrees of heat may be very safely abstracted every day: the heat may be lessened even faster after the first week, and within the second may be brought to that of spring water, about 52°.

In the Appendix is a concise account of the materia medica, a short extemporaneous pharmacy, with a glossary of the less usual words.

'Upon the whole, if extensive research, important observation, and practical utility, can stamp an incontestable value on a medical production, there is reason to think that the present treatise has, more than any other work of the kind, either foreign or domestic, such just pretensions to the approbation and favour of the public as cannot but ensure its success.' P. v.

We cannot conclude in a tone quite so high. We can commend this work as giving a very judicious view of the subject of medicine in general: but if, with the assistance of this manual, any uneducated person attempt to practise in any but the most trifling disorder, he will be fortunate if he have not to lament some fatal error—an error not so much owing to the author's guidance as to the conciseness

which precludes particular remark, and the want of accurate discrimination, which no individual work can teach.

ART. 24.—*History of Animal Magnetism; its Origin, Progress, and present State; its Principles and Secrets displayed, as delivered by the late Dr. De Mainauduc. To which are added, Dissertations on the Dropsy, Spasms, Epileptic Fits, St. Vitus's Dance, Gout, Rheumatism, and Consumption; with upwards of One Hundred Cures and Cases: Also Advice to those who visit the Sick, with Recipes to prevent Infection; a Definition of Sympathy, Antipathy, the Effects of the Imagination on Pregnant Women, Nature, History, and on the Resurrection of the Body. By George Winter, M.D. &c.* 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Newbery.

The author is a physician, a disciple of De Mainauduc, and a mystic philosopher, not wholly according to, nor very distant from, the systems of Van Helmont and Swedenbourg; who, however remote in many points, sometimes harmonise with a surprising similarity. Dr. Winter speaks of disorders and of curing them, though he conceals his methods; but he seems not to trust wholly to animal magnetism. Of the concluding topics, 'sympathy and antipathy, nature, history, and the resurrection,' we cannot speak, since the author's meaning lies too deep for our investigation. If we object, however,

'That there's no meaning to be seen,'

He may reply perhaps—

'Why that's the very thing I mean.'

ART. 25.—*A practical Essay on the Art of recovering Suspended Animation; together with a Review of the most proper and effectual Means to be adopted in Cases of imminent Danger. Translated from the German of Christian Augustus Struve, M.D. &c.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Murray *and* Highley. 1801.

As the translator observes, a comprehensive and a more complete work on this subject was a desideratum in the English language, and we see no reason to complain of the want of minute distinctions and a laboured arrangement in the publication before us. Somewhat too much of these indeed, for a work of such slight texture, are conspicuous; yet we must admit that we find numerous well-digested facts, the result of observation, and founded on a successful practice. The history of humane societies is full and comprehensive, and the directions are extended to every form of apparent death, where resuscitation has been found practicable, as from poisons, apoplexy, injuries in birth, &c. The part particularly valuable is where the author speaks of the signs of death, and examines how far they may be depended on as such.

His doctrine of life, though not expressly stated, must resemble Buffon's system of the organic molecules: he considers it as a *principle* admitting of different combinations, and, of course, different forms. Thus the life of the human being, which lies buried, may be again conspicuous in the flower which blooms on the grave. This is a pleasing idea, but not strictly philosophical, and its tendency is somewhat suspicious.

ART. 26.—*Cases of successful Practice with Perkins's Patent Metallic Tractors; communicated since January* 1800, *the Date of the former Publication, by many scientific Characters. To which are prefixed Prefatory Remarks, in Exposition of the Artifices of Interest and Prejudice to prevent the Adoption of the Metallic Practice. By Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. &c.* 12*mo.* 1*s.* Johnson. 1801.

Dr. Perkins continues to combat his enemies with spirit, and to recommend his tractors with unimpaired zeal and unexhausted energy. We beg, however, to enter our protest against one passage, viz. in p. 35, where Dr. Perkins observes that 'the Critical Reviewers virtually acknowledge their conversion to the metallic practice, by that work.' We could not acknowledge our conversion, as we had had no experience; but reflecting much, as every philosopher at this time does, on the obscure subject of galvanism, we saw some analogy between it and the effects, *if any*, of the tractors. We added that, in this view, they might probably have some powers; but their nature and proper application are still unknown to us.

## EDUCATION.

ART. 27.—*Pastoral Hints on the Importance of Religious Education: with an Outline of a familiar Plan of Instruction; designed for the Assistance of Families. By Edward Burn, M. A.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1801.

Under the affected title of Pastoral Hints are given some trite hints on education, with the importance of religious impressions in early life. The familiar plan is very meagre; and among the few books that are recommended, several are taken from the compositions of Dissenters, when equally useful ones might have been found within the pale of the establishment. As there was no pressing necessity for the publication of the author's sentiments on education, a little attention to what had been previously written on this subject would have been desirable; and Mrs. Hannah More, miss Edgeworth, Mrs. Macauley, together with Locke, and even Rousseau and Chesterfield, may be usefully consulted by him against the next edition of his hints.

ART. 28.—*The Two Princes of Persia. Addressed to Youth. By I. Porter.* 12*mo.* 3*s. bound.* Crosby *and* Letterman. 1801.

Many excellent moral lessons are here communicated in the swelling language of the East—two princes of Persia and their preceptor being the chief speakers. The little incidents that might naturally occur in the course of their minority form subjects of instruction, which the preceptor enlivens by tales derived from all quarters: and the work has this advantage, that it contains nothing which may not be addressed to children. The manners of the East are well preserved; and young people will feel their curiosity excited by the language and customs which the writer has adopted for their instruction and amusement.

## POETRY.

ART. 29.—*Petrarchal Sonnets and Miscellaneous Poems. By William Dimond the Younger.* 12*mo.* 5*s. Boards.* Carpenters. 1800.

'The subsequent pages,' says Mr. Dimond, 'are the production

of sixteen; and not written as the serious labours of a soul devoted to no other object, but as the natural relaxations of the mind during few and limited periods of recess from the monotonous tædium of legal attentions.' We are not yet so hardened by the habits of severity as to be destitute of sympathy for the feelings of so young an author, which he vents in a tremendous philippic against the malevolence of criticism. We assure this young gentleman that we are not of the number of 'the slaves of envy and the agents of malignity who lie darkling to watch the parturitions of genius, and strangle her fairest offspring ere they meet the light.' On the contrary, we trust we shall prove ourselves real friends to genius, when, while we encourage him to continue his cultivation of the poetic art, we advise him to keep his future pieces nine years before he presents them to the public, or, in other words, to submit them to the process of patient and laborious correction. He is possessed of imagination and sensibility; but he seems to want the gift of true taste. Hence he has deformed many of his poems by the admission of far-fetched thoughts and tawdry words and phrases. He will do well to study to attain that simplicity of language which graces the works of a Goldsmith and a Pope: and if he form his future style after these models, he will weed out such lines as the following:

'And gaily *them'd* my *juvenescent* lay.' P. 11.

* * * * *

'The heart's wept crystal dims the eye's fine fire,
And Pity *queens her* in the heaving breast!' P. 16.

* * * * *

'Thy *colden'd inmate* to remembrance dear.' P. 18.

Mr. Dimond's maturer taste will protest against the following sonnet, 'written on the death of Robert Merry, esq. the celebrated poet.'

'Beam back, thou rising sun! nor yet presume
To outrage Nature with offensive light;
Perpetuate, ye sable shades of night,
And shroud her wretchedness in genial gloom!
For him the goddess mourns, whose crystal heart
Her dearest attributes did erst enthrone;
Whose tow'ring song with pride she call'd her own,
And wafted buoyant 'bove the reach of art!
And could he die—could Della Crusca die?
Creation's echo answers with a sigh!
Yet from incumb'ring earth to native skies
Though freed and pure his ardent spirit flies,
Still must a nation's sorrows bathe his tomb,
Where fadeless wreaths of living letters bloom!' P. 50.

The sonnet to April we may quote as a proof that, notwithstanding his too frequent deviations from correct taste, Mr. Dimond occasionally displays considerable poetic powers.

'Capricious April! thou that lead'st the year,
In snowy tunic and dark vest array'd,
(Mark'd by alternate tints of light and shade)
And dimly smiling through a peevish tear,
Haste from thy couch of Iris-light! Appear

With sunny smile! Unsandal'd trip the glade,
And scatter faëry blossoms from thy braid
Of woven violet and crocus—dear
In the sweet promise which their perfumes breathe,
That summer soon the vale unzon'd shall rove,
Flinging from Flora's bright consummate wreathe
The brilliant musk-rose; and shall hang the grove
With blythe-leaf'd woodbine, shadowing dells beneath,
That yield luxuriant haunts to rural love.' P. 13.

We are sorry to find some gross instances of affected phraseology in Mr. Dimond's dedication to the duchess of York. What does he mean when he says of his work '*I affectionated its destiny, but was incapable of protecting it?*' or when he tells us that he shall ever *memorise* her royal highness's condescension?

ART. 30.—*Poems, by Thomas Smith.* 8*vo.* . No Publisher's Name.

To relieve the languor of a secluded situation, the author and a few of his friends formed themselves into a little society for mutual entertainment and instruction. Each member was encouraged to submit some poetical production of his own to the free examination of the rest; and this institution, we are told, gave rise to the greater part of the pieces before us. Far be it from us to wish to disband so harmless a fraternity. The mode adopted by these friends for procuring amusement to themselves is both innocent and commendable; but of the amusement that others are likely to gain by their association we cannot speak flatteringly from the sample afforded us. There is nothing in their poetical efforts either new or spirited; and we present the reader with the first short piece in the volume, as a fair specimen of the general merit of the whole.

'MAN.

'Foe to whate'er resembles plan,
The creature of a cloud is man,
The sport of every wind that blows;
Give him a pure and cloudless sky,
An atmosphere serene and dry,
And health on every feature glows.

'High beats his pulse to pleasure's sway,
Light round his heart the spirits play,
And brace his nerves to vigorous toil;
But change the scene, and bid the hours
Revolve in wildly-weeping showers,
And cheerful sun-beams cease to smile:

'The wretch no more of rapture dreams,
Relax'd thro' every nerve he seems,
And listless sighs the live-long day;
In fancy feels a thousand woes,
Combine to banish soft repose,
And chase fond hope itself away.

'Is this the man for sway design'd,
And this th' "omnipotence of mind,"
That spurns indignant all control?
Better with dignity to yield,
And own, that patience is the shield
That best supports the sinking soul.' P. 19.

ART. 31.—*The Vernal Walk; a Poem.* 8vo. 1s. Crosby *and* Letterman. 1801.

The Vernal Walk should have been trodden and re-trodden before it was ventured to be proposed as a promenade for the public. In its present form, to drop the metaphor, it appears but the offspring of a moment. As it was produced at Cambridge, we wonder the writer had not more recollection of the advice of Horace, which could never apply better than in the present case. Not only the same ideas, but the same expressions also, are continually repeated. The poet, we allow, has occasionally a thought that would appear pretty if prettily clad; but versification like the following we cannot suffer to pass without censure: we have hardly ever seen lines more flat and insipid than the author's apostrophe to the sun.

'And, lo, victorious sun,
The tempests now are gone; for thou hast driven
The king of tempests to the gloomy pole,
His joyless empire of unbounded wilds.
Now earth is gay once more; for spring, thy child
Angelical, has mourn'd the ruin'd year.
Sublime upon the lofty clouds she rode,
And saw the prostrate world, dark, ravag'd, wild.
Recining, then she sigh'd, and shed o'er earth
Her tears; while flowers, as if by sympathy,
Awoke o'er hill and valley, and the birds
Attun'd their songs. Now then, O vital orb,
O soul of nature! now then, I will seek
My chosen friend, and pass the vernal day
In rural pleasure. Gaily we will rove
These wand'ring vales, and swelling hills among,
Nor will we from the lovely scenes retire,
Till thou shalt sink beneath yon azure hills
To bid the western hemisphere rejoice.' P. 5.

## DRAMA.

ART. 32.—*The Surrender of Calais; an Historical Drama.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Crosby *and* Letterman. 1801.

Gentle reader! we here treat thee with a sonnet, in which thou wilt perceive the joy of a trading poet at the certainty of his *fame-bound pinnace* getting snug into harbour; though, when thou hast look'd over his bills of lading, thou mayest, perhaps, think with us, that he hath but an indifferent cargo of merchandise to dispose of.

The idea of *anchoring his bark* beneath the protecting *shade of a rock*, whatever its incongruity, has at least the merit of novelty to boast of.

'SONNET DEDICATORY.

'From baleful critic's storm-presaging eye,
From crouds that like tempestuous billows roar,
From friendship's slackened gale becalming nigh,
From rival bards that urge the wreck on shore,
Where shall the poet's fame-bound pinnace fly?
*Is there no rock, late found, or known of yore,*
*Beneath whose shade his anchoring bark may lie;*
No charm to still the waves, no magic lore
To swell the sails, and friendship's breath supply,
No port to screen below, no star to guide on high?

'There is—there is—the god of verse replies;
A star, propitious to the poet's name,
Now beams effulgent forth in ******* eyes,
Of ********** royal race, endear'd to fame:
Her's is the voice to charm when tempests rise,
Her's is the smile which critics dare not blame;
Her's is the magic lore that well supplies
More flattering gales than friendship knows to claim,
Her—rival bards revere—'Tis her's the prize
Of wit and worth t' adjudge, enroll'd above the skies.'

Critics must be surly old fellows, indeed, if they could blame the *smiles* of a lady, especially such an one as the poet's patron is said to be, although *incognita*. But be it known to our bard, and to all else whom it may concern, that we dare at all times to blame dulness, wherever we may chance to find it. Now for a sample.

'*J. de Vienne.* ———Methinks I fain would learn,
From those brave English who commanded there,
How best befits a soldier to defend
A soldier's charge.
'*W. de Manny.* Yourself do teach it nobly;
Calais shall stand recorded in her sons
For gallant obstinacy; nor shall Aiguillon
Be soon forgot—The pelting instruments
Of other wars were scarcely heard of there;
Strange new-devised engines shook the walls
Like fearful earthquakes; seven whole days and nights
The fierce assault was given, now here, now there,
With numbers fresh supply'd, that clust'ring hung
Like bees upon the lofty battlements,
Still swept off by the victorious English.
Heart-sick at length, and crest-fall'n, fretful John
Changes his measures, and in close blockade
Hems us on all sides round, and binds himself
By a rash vow to conquer ere he quitted;
But deeds, that better speak the soldier's part
Than holy vows, declar'd for us and Lancaster;
Who, like a vulture cow'ring on a rock,
Hung o'er the drooping French, and prey'd upon
Their inmost entrails; till in blank despair

John gave a last assault; from morn to noon
The battle rag'd, from noon to pitchy night,
That sav'd the blushing *fleurs-de-lys* of France
From farther shame: baffled in all his arts,
At last he rais'd the siege, and flung away;
Something in haste indeed, like a proud steed,
Ill-rein'd and saddle-wrung, that breaks his girths,
And leaves his gay caparison behind.' P. 11.

If any part of a work has more spirit than another, it is generally the beginning; and yet, if any lines can be more miserably drawled out than this scene is, we are no judges of verse-making.

ART. 33.—*The Dash of the Day; a Comedy, in Five Acts; as performed with universal Applause by his Majesty's Servants of the Theatre-Royal, Norwich. By Francis Lathom, Author of Men and Manners, &c.* 8vo. 2s. West *and* Hughes. 1801.

The present mode of farcical comedy, as men of taste have long and often lamented, is conducted upon silly principles, and calculated to gratify a vitiated palate, which play-wrights themselves have given to the public. Instead of that natural simplicity which was wont to delight our forefathers, we are entertained with either extravagance of character, or a continual play upon words: and this vice has not only seized upon men of little abilities, but even those who confessedly could do better are tainted with the same ridiculous contagion. We have elsewhere had occasion to mention with respect Mr. Lathom's knowledge of men and manners, and now we are constrained to notice to the reader his having fallen into the latter of the two faults which we have just condemned.

'SCENE II.—*A Room at Mr.* Fretquil's.

'*Enter Mr. and Mrs.* Fretquil.

'*Mrs. Fretq.* Mr. Fretquil, you shall hear me; you shall *hear* reason.

'*Fretq.* Can you *talk* it, Mrs. Fretquil?

'*Mrs. Fretq.* Can you *understand* it, Mr. Fretquil?

'*Fretq.* It is a fair question, for your conduct has gone nigh to *derange my senses.*

'*Mrs. Fretq.* Then circulate the report, and do your endeavour to get it believed; I promise you it will redound to your honour; for none of your friends, that I am acquainted with, ever yet gave you credit for *possessing any.*

'*Fretq.* Ah, my dear, I never committed but one foolish action in my life, and you take care to remind me of it every time I see you.

'*Mrs. Fretq.* Why, you ungrateful man! when you ought to look upon the day that gave you such a wife as me as the happiest of your life;—Don't I consult your inclination and ease in every respect? Don't I even take the trouble of speaking, acting, and thinking for yourself, off your hands?

'*Fretq.* True, my dear; but I could often willingly spare you the pains.

'*Mrs. Fretq.* Don't I *ask your advice* upon every occasion?

'*Fretq.* Yes; but you might just as well wave the compliment, for it is not one time in twenty that you will *hear it*, or one in five hundred that you will *take it*.

'*Mrs. Fretq.* And why? Why, but because I am always in the right, and you never are: Now, for instance, your mean groveling spirit would throw away your daughter upon some *huge, clumsy cit*, in preference to giving her hand to sir Frederick Floricourt.

'*Fretq.* And what do you suppose sir Frederick wants her hand for, but because of her *huge, clumsy, city fortune?* Whenever any of your west-end of the town quality come a courting into the city, depend upon it, it is a sure sign of an empty purse and weak credit.' P. 15.

This quotation will sufficiently demonstrate the acuteness of the author's perception; but the continual use of antithesis, though it may delight the vulgar on the stage, will not fail to give offence to the learned in their closets.

## NOVELS, &c.

ART. 34.—*Which is the Man? A Novel. By Mrs. Meeke.* 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 18*s. Boards.* Lane. 1801.

If dukes and duchesses, marquisses and marchionesses, ever read books of this description, they will most likely vouchsafe to give an hour to the perusal of the present performance, because in it they will meet with but few personages of less consequence than themselves: and if any of them should have conceived that their elevated rank renders the study of English grammar beneath their notice, they will here also be accommodated in that particular. We are mortified to find the abodes of our youthful years deserving so bad a character.

'Our public schools,' says Mrs. Meeke, 'are mere hot-beds for the encouragement of vice and dissipation, which flourish in still greater perfection at college; and as for the grand tour, *why*, half those who undertake it return greater fools than they set out.'

If the author, in the multiplicity of her sapience, has struck out a plan to supersede this system of instruction, according to which we confess we had the misfortune to be educated, *why*, she really ought to make it public, in pity to the rising generation.

ART. 35.—*The Mysterious Penitent; or, the Norman Château. A Romance.* 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 6*s. sewed.* Crosby *and* Letterman. 1801.

We cannot forbear to express our disapprobation of ghosts and mysteries, whenever and wherever it is our lot to meet with them: yet we must not throw by this little novel without bestowing upon it the portion of praise which it merits. Several of the characters are well conceived, amongst which the one of Valeria di Rozarno is peculiarly impressive. The lesson afforded by it to young minds is of the utmost consequence. When the passions are suffered to break down the bulwark of reason, and innocence is once lost, no one can determine how far the deluge shall spread. As the ghost turns out at last to be a monkey, we shall pass no farther in censure upon him

than by generally remarking, that the more of supernatural agency is employed in a novel, the farther is the idea of its truth removed from the mind of its readers.

ART. 36.—*She Lives in Hopes; or, Caroline. A Narration founded upon Facts. By Miss Hatfield, of Manchester. (By Permission) Dedicated to her Royal Highness the Princess of Orange and Nassau. 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. sewed.* Parsons. 1801.

The only things likely to attract the reader's notice in this performance are a dedication to the princess of Orange at the beginning, and a coach with four bays at the conclusion. As her highness has been pleased to give her permission for this epistle dedicatory, and the author seems pleased with the opportunity of testifying her respect for her royal patron, we sincerely wish she may see realised whatever *she lives in hopes* of.

ART. 37.—*Clara, a Tale. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. sewed.* Kearsley. 1801.

There is a great deal of strong etching in the characters of this little story. The delineation is correct and discriminative, and the dialogue forcible and pathetic. The author has shown no small share of skill in his choice of the place in which the scene is laid. Savoy, and the other countries at the foot of the Alps, are particularly adapted for the display of simplicity and enthusiasm; and the energy and innocence of St. Aubigny and his family will draw forth the admiration of every reader of feeling and sentiment.

ART. 38.—*Alphonso di Borgo; or, a sentimental Correspondence of the Sixteenth Century. 12mo. 4s. Boards.* Carpenters. 1800.

This novel has at least the merit of being short, and is written impressively and from the heart; but we can hardly give it any other commendation. The author calls it, in his dedication, 'the first effort of a juvenile pen.' On this account we will not be severe upon it; but we cannot flatter the writer with the possession of any great portion of merit. It is remarkably bare of incidents; or indeed, to speak more correctly, it has but one, and that one is far from being skilfully handled. If the author should attempt to write another work, we would recommend to him to distinguish his personages by names common to the country in which his tale is said to be founded.

## MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 39.—*A Letter addressed to John Whitemore, Esq. M.P. Member of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Coal Trade. Pointing out the Impolicy of the proposed Measure of obtaining a Supply of Coal from the Manufacturing Districts to the Metropolis; the Causes of the High Price of Coal; and the Means of an immediate and continued Reduction of Price. By Henry Grey Macnab, M. D. 4to. 5s.* Griffiths. 1801.

Though we are by no means convinced of the impolicy of any measure which establishes a competition in commerce, we are highly gratified by the information derived from this work on a subject of great importance to the public. The nature of the coal trade is little

understood. The progress of the coal from the mine to the consumer should be well examined before any one presumes to censure the regulations entered into in the north, or attempt new systems for the coal market, colliers, and barges in the port of London. At the same time the inquiry now on foot is essentially necessary, and may be the means of preventing in future that extravagant advance in the price of coals which could have no basis in the nature of the commodity. The expence and risk of mining, the comparative value of mines, the quantity of shipping employed, the necessity of some regulations in the shipping of the commodity, the effects of the arrival of a large fleet in the port of London on lightermen and coal-heavers, or a delay in the accustomed arrivals, and the mode of transacting business on the coal-exchange, all these topics must be well explained before any change should be proposed in the general trade. Many of these points are well examined in the work before us, and more information is promised, for which the writer deserves the thanks of the public.

ART. 40.—*Observations on the probable Consequences of even attempting, by legislative Authority, to obtain a large Supply of Coal from Staffordshire to the Metropolis; on the Iron Trade in Staffordshire and Shropshire in the large Way; on the Iron and Copper Trades at Birmingham in the small Way; on the Price of Coal to the Inhabitants of London and Westminster; on the Collieries in the North; on the Carrying Trade of Sunderland and Shields; and on the Navy of Great-Britain. In a Letter to William Manning, Esq. M.P. and Chairman of the Honourable Committee of the Coal Trade. By Henry Grey Macnab, M. D.* 4to. 10s. 6d. *sewed.* Griffiths. 1801.

The question of availing ourselves of the advantages now offered, by internal navigation, to supply the metropolis with coals, has given rise to this publication; in which the writer, with great strength of reasoning and much weight of authority, contends against the measure, and would confine us entirely to the supplies to be derived from the collieries of Newcastle and its neighbourhood. We confess that, notwithstanding the instruction we have derived from the perusal of this work as to many collateral points, we are by no means induced to accede to the author's favourite opinion, and we would leave this trade, as well as all others, to find its own level. If the Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Worcestershire collieries can be wrought to the advantage of the owners and the consumers in the metropolis, why should that advantage be rejected? The excessive rise a year or two ago in the price of coals shows that a competition, as in all other cases, will be beneficial to the public; and the idea of the coal trade being necessary for our navy is advanced totally without foundation: but even allowing it something of the importance here contended for, it is probable, from the increasing size of the metropolis, that not one ship the less will be employed when the western supplies of coals arrive in barges at the Paddington canal. It is evident that, when this is completed, all farther resistance on the part of the northern collieries will be ineffectual; and if government attend to the many useful hints thrown out in this work—if it encourage, instead of repressing, our manufactures—the supplies to be raised from both the north and the west will not more than equal the demand of the year.

The extracts from the evidence delivered to the house of commons are placed very judiciously before the reader; but we may observe that, in all these inquiries by parliament, it is seldom any material information is derived. Calculations and examinations of great manufacturers and persons employed in the mines do not tend much to satisfy the public mind, which cannot divest itself of the idea that the evidence offered is generally too personal and self-interested. The general question will meet, we are persuaded, with little opposition, if left to its own intrinsic merits. Leave the counties of England to their own industry and provincial wealth, and let them all have the same access to the metropolis; there is employment enough for every one. *Laissez les faire.* Leave all trade to itself, and do not clog it with unnecessary restrictions. We shall be happy to have the choice, in another year, of taking our bushel of coals from the pool or the Paddington canal; and the cheapest, if the best, will have the preference with us. Nevertheless we recommend these very useful remarks to the dealers in coals, iron, and copper, and the proprietors of every other mine.

ART. 41.—*The Contemplative Philosopher; or Short Essays on the various Objects of Nature throughout the Year; with Poetical Illustrations and Moral Reflections on each Subject.* 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 8*s.* *Boards.* Robinsons. 1800.

Between the men of severe study, and the mere triflers over a book who read nonsense to divert their thoughts and to pass away their heavy hours, is another class of readers, who must not be disgraced by being ranked with the latter, although they are not entitled to a share of praise with the former: these are those who either have not leisure enough to spare from their more necessary avocations, or else have not enough vigour of mind to pursue knowledge into her closest retreats, and yet have too much laudable ambition to be content in a state of total ignorance of philosophy and the sciences. Every scholar who enjoys the benefit of a more profound erudition, and is at the same time gifted with a benevolence of disposition, takes delight in throwing out helps to persons of this denomination: hence have issued into the world the many compendiums and essays on the various branches of literature.

The papers contained in the present volumes were published in the Universal Magazine, from 1785 to 1792, in the order which suited the several months of the year; and it is with much satisfaction we see them here collected together; for they not only will serve as amusement to the investigators of the curious operations of nature, but may also induce many persons to dip deeper into books of more elaborate disquisition and magnitude.

ART. 42.—*Oratio in Theatro Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensis, ex Harveii Instituto, habita Die Octob.* 18, *An.* 1800, *ab Henrico Vaughan, M. D. Medico Regio extraordinario.* 4*to.* 2*s.* White.

The author expatiates somewhat beyond the usual limits. Harvey, Linacre, and '*the powers that be,*' are, as in *duty bound,* liberally praised; and this, the necessary seasoning of an Harveian oration, must be admitted and pardoned. The principal position, that philosophy and literature are of singular importance, and almost essential to the physician, is one that cannot be discussed in so short a compass. We own ourselves of this opinion; yet an antagonist could take such

strong ground, founded so frequently on facts, that we fear we might be severely pressed in the contest.—Will not the result be nearly the same as in the dispute respecting the utility of mathematical knowledge;—*aptiorem medicinæ reddere medicum?* Will not these sciences render the perceptions more clear, the views more extensive, the reasoning more strict, and the conclusions more accurate, without adding to the stock of facts? and may not, on the other hand, these auxiliaries become principals to the injury of that science they were intended to assist? We could wish to see these questions discussed by a philosophical physician, not wedded to the other sciences, and capable of distinguishing the useful from the ornamental;—what is of real importance, from what only pretends to be so.

There is more elegance in the style of this oration than we have often witnessed. Sir W. F. if we understand the description aright, seems to be rather too heavily borne down upon.

ART. 43.—*The Seaman's Desiderata; or concise Practical Rules for computing the apparent Time at Sea, the Latitude from double Solar Altitudes, and the Longitude from the Lunar Observations; with a simple and expeditious Method of clearing the Lunar Distances from the Effects of Parallax and Refraction. By H. Clarke, Lecturer in Mathematics and Philosophy.* 4to. 5s. *Boards.* Hurst. 1800.

ART. 44.—*A new, concise, and correct Operation for clearing the apparent Distance of the Moon from a Star or the Sun of the Effects of Refraction and Parallax; fully exemplified, illustrated, and demonstrated. To which is added a free and impartial Examination of an original Projection for the same Purpose, as shown in the practical Introduction to Spherics and Nautical Astronomy. By H. Clarke, &c.* 4to. 2s. Hurst. 1800.

Every thing which facilitates the discovery of the longitude of a ship at sea is of great importance to mariners, and the attempts to bring into more general use the mode by lunar distances is highly laudable. The rules and operations here proposed will, with the Nautical Almanack and excellent observations of Dr. Maskelyne, be found of great service, and the young sailor will do well to study these instances with close attention.

ART. 45.—*Thoughts on Poor-Houses, with a View to their general Reform, particularly that of Salisbury; comparing it with the more improved ones of Shrewsbury, Isle of Wight, Hull, Boldre; &c. and Deductions drawn, useful to other Poor-Houses. To which is added, an Account of the Population of Salisbury, with Observations thereon. By Henry Wansey, F.A.S.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

The legislature has wisely provided that the poor of each parish or district should be provided for by the parish or district itself; and the management of their concerns is committed to the wisdom and discretion of the inhabitants under certain regulations, calculated to prevent abuses with respect to the poor, or misapplication with respect to the parochial finances. Of late years great improvements have been made in this branch of politics; accounts have been published of the management of the poor in various districts, and a greater degree of attention has been paid to their education and com-

forts. There is certainly room for much improvement in the financial department at Salisbury; but we are happy to see that, in a very essential article, the poor are better provided for now than they were twenty years ago. Their health is an object of greater attention. Out of 169, in the year 1780, there died, in one year, 27; and, in the year 1800, out of 312 there died only 20. The poor within this period have nearly doubled; the poor's-rates, however, have increased in more than a fourfold proportion. This augmentation in the poor's-rates is a natural consequence of taxation. It nevertheless appears greater than necessary; and by the prudent suggestions in this work, the rates, we think, may be considerably diminished. We were surprised to see in so sensible a writer an insinuation that a general spirit of monopoly prevails at present more than at any former period: if he had used the term extortion he would have been nearer the truth, and even then his remark would have required considerable modification. Suppose a butcher, or any other tradesman, to have been properly paid by a profit of ten per cent. ten years ago, and that government had imposed on the trade of the butcher a tax of ten per cent. to be paid out of his income alone: it is evident that the butcher must increase his price, and, instead of ten per cent. must have a profit of eleven and a half per cent. If a tax of ten per cent. be imposed at the same time upon all other incomes, it is evident that the butcher's price for his commodities must be increased still farther; and if to this we add the other additional taxes, the butcher will not be liable to any charge of extortion or monopoly more than his neighbour. We complain of effects without looking at the cause.

ART. 46.—*A Proposal on Behalf of the Married Poor.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Arch. 1801.

The poor, whether married or unmarried, are objects of attention, and the laws of England have wisely devised means for their support. The late increase in the poor's rates has occasioned much dissatisfaction, though, in our judgement, unreasonably so with respect to these laws. Each parish is compellable to raise the sum necessary for the support of its poor; it is authorised to elect overseers to superintend the distribution of the sum assessed; and the poor have the power of appealing to the magistrate of the district, who is seldom inclined to throw his weight in the balance against them. Farther than this a legislature cannot advance; and all our supposed improvements have tended only to throw the management of the poor out of the hands of those who know and are interested in supplying their wants, into the hands of a different set of commissioners who can know nothing about them. The increase in the poor's-rates is the consequence of the increase in taxation, which is every year converting a certain number of those who paid to the rate into the class of those who receive from it. One part of this writer's plan has been already anticipated by the county of Bedford, which, in a meeting last summer, settled, in a very wise manner, the proportion of assistance necessary for a poor family in the following manner. Take the number of the family, husband, wife, and children. Set down each person three shillings a-week. Deduct the gains of the family. Let the parish pay the difference. Thus suppose a man and his wife and six children are driven to

distress: The man's wages being calculated at nine shillings a-week, and the wife and children's gains at six, the parish has nine shillings to pay weekly. A good example to other counties.

ART. 47.—*New-invented Tables of Interest, upon One small Card, that will lay in a Pocket-Book; shewing the Interest on any Sum, for any Number of Days, at Five per Cent. Being the most simple and concise Method of finding Interest ever offered to the Public. By Thomas Baird.* 1*s.* Black *and* Parry. 1801.

These tables are formed on principles so simple as to be obvious to any one who considers the general expression for the interest of a sum of money for any number of days. The interest of seventy-three pounds for five days, at five per cent. is one shilling; hence a scale of numbers is formed corresponding to one, two, three, &c. shillings to 100 shillings, and these numbers are consequently in arithmetical progression. For interest under one shilling a corresponding table is formed from a $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $11\frac{1}{2}d.$ which is not strictly correct; but the error is too small to be noticed, except in very large sums, as it affects the decimals only in smaller sums, which, if accurate, could not be paid by any current coin. But the projector of the table, when he says that it will show the interest of any sum for any number of days, forgets to tell us what we are to do when the interest of the sum exceeds 400*l.* the limit of his card, which, for the price of one shilling, he might, we think, have afforded to have calculated; and had the card been printed on both sides, it might easily have presented us with this and other estimates. In its present state, however, it will be found an useful pocket companion to those who are much employed in calculating interest on stock, &c. at five per cent.

ART. 48.—*Elements of Civil Knowledge. By Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq. Vol. I.* 8*vo.* 7*s. bound.* Clement. 1800.

This is the first volume of a work announced under the general title of Mural Nights, and which was chosen by the author from his late situation when immured in Dorchester jail. The place was favourable to midnight reflexion; and the writer made good use of his exile from society. If there be nothing either new or very recondite in his lucubrations, he has brought together a number of useful remarks from the authors both ancient and modern with whom he was acquainted, and placed them in a sufficiently agreeable point of view to his readers. That our general mode of education in grammar schools may be improved cannot be doubted; and the chief object of the work before us is to point out such advantageous alterations. Little stress is laid upon the acquisition of the dead languages; and the time now assuredly wasted upon them by the greater part of young people who frequent our public schools or universities is recommended to be devoted to geography, history, modern languages, and the lower branches of science. The inferior classes are to be instructed in what is certainly a requisition of high importance, those principles of knowledge which will make them good jurors and good citizens. The chief defect in this work is that its writer dwells too long upon points which no one will dispute with him; recommends improvements which cannot, for obvious causes, be introduced into our public schools; and proposes what he deems new modes of study,

but which, in reality, have long been practised with great success in our private seminaries of education.

ART. 49.—*The Narrative of Mr. John Soren, a Native of the United States of America, piratically captured on the High Seas, in Requital for an Act of Humanity, in saving a British Transport, with near 300 Troops on board, from sinking. With an Appendix, containing the Documents referred to in the Narrative, a Letter from the American Minister, and Testimonials of the Truth of the Statement from Major Mansergh, the Commanding-Officer of the Troops, and Captain Davis.* 8*vo.* No Publisher's Name. 1800.

This is one of the hardest cases we ever read. An American vessel observing a ship in distress, sailed down to it, and, in return for her kindness, was seized by the captain of the distressed vessel, who, coming on board the American, and receiving every offer of humanity with apparent gratitude, sent his mate to his own ship for a company of soldiers, by whose assistance he took possession of the American, and made a prisoner of its captain. After a variety of ill treatment the American was brought to Barbadoes, where the ship and cargo were ordered to be restored to the right owner; but the American commander, finding the English captain had absconded, neglected to apply to the court for damages. The Englishman was employed in the transport service, and was then conveying troops to the West Indies, and at Teneriffe he removed the troops from his own ship to the American's, from which the damage to the cargo of the latter may be easily conceived. The cargo sold at Barbadoes, in this state, brought in 1756*l.* 9*s.* 3¾*d.* The prime cost at Hamburgh was 3200*l.* The insurers at Hamburgh would pay nothing, because, 'having borne down to the relief of his majesty's transport laden with troops in distress, you altered the ship's regular course, and deviated from the voyage.' The courts in England could give no redress, because restitution of ship and cargo had been made at Barbadoes. The facts are substantiated by important letters from the captains of the troops on board; and the case deserves the examination of every merchant.

ART. 50.—*An Appeal to a humane Public for the poorer Millers and Bakers, respecting the high Price of Bread, and the Injury sustained by them from the Establishment of the London Flour, Meal, and Bread Company. With an Account of the Effect the Institution of the new Chartered Company had in immediately raising, instead of lowering, the Price of Corn. By an attentive Observer.* 8*vo.* Allen. 1800.

The price of bread has certainly risen since the institution of this monopoly; but the advance is too great to have been occasioned by it. The evident tendency of such a monopoly is to raise, not to lower, the price of provisions; and if it transact much business in its threefold capacity of corn-dealer, miller, and mealman and baker, it must be to the injury of many persons in these employments, as well as to that of the public. But the greatest injury it occasions is by the encouragement that it affords to the levelling spirit, which is perpetually advancing in this country. The desire of gain levels all ranks, as at the gaming table. The nobility and the gentry have

joined with the merchants of the city in an endeavour to usurp the profits of trade and commerce. It is as unseemly to survey such an union as it would be to behold a little baker ape the fine gentleman. Let each rank of life fulfil the duties of its station; but this engrossing spirit prevents the controul which the superior ranks naturally possess over those below them. A banking or a baking peer must, like other men, feel his judgement warped when a monied or baking question is brought into parliament.

ART. 51.—*Observations on the Act which passed into a Law the 28th of July, 1800, to incorporate certain Persons by the Name of The London Company, for the Manufacture of Flour, Meal, and Bread; showing the Excellence of the Plan proposed, and that its Adoption will in future prevent an artificial Scarcity of Wheat, and will prove a Death-Blow to Monopolizers, Forestallers, and Regraters of that essential Article; including a copious Abridgment of the above Act, and the Names of the present Proprietors. By J. H. Prince.* 8vo. 6d. West *and* Hughes.

Common-place declamation, blended with no small share of malignity. The new London Company will scarcely be pleased with such an advocate, nor even with his well-meant prophecy, that this company

'—will, in a short time, become the only monopolizers of corn in this country; and, thanks be to God! they will be such only for the good of their countrymen;—they will hold their vast stores in trust for the nation; their warehouses may be considered as public granaries, and the corn and meal as deposited there merely for safety, out of the reach of those worst of thieves, monopolizers, forestallers, and regraters.' P. 20.

ART. 52.—*The Sceptic.* 8vo. 2s. West *and* Hughes. 1800.

The author's motto is '*dulce est desipere in loco*;' but the mirth is, we think, *misplaced*, and not always consistent with decorum. It is designed as a ludicrous representation of some modern discoveries, or pretences to them; for the author is, as he hints in the title, sceptical. The observations on caloric would have merited some attention in a better form.

ART. 53.—*Information for Cottagers, collected from the Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor. And published by Order of the Society.* 12mo. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

This is a well meant publication; but sufficient care is not taken that the whole should be intelligible to those persons for whose use it is immediately compiled. There are too many hard words in the book, and too much credit is given to Mr. Haggitt's plan of making bran nearly as good as wheat.

ART. 54.—*The Victim, in Five Letters to Adolphus.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Button. 1800.

This is a very well written little tract, intended as a dissuasive from a vice of most malignant influence, and at the same time of alarming increase in all great cities—the promiscuous intercourse of the sexes. It will easily be seen, by those who duly consider the power

of custom and the degeneracy of human nature, that an evil of this sort will not be greatly diminished, except it be combated by the strong exertions of the law. If, however, this pamphlet should restrain the passions of any youth as yet innocent, or sound an alarm to the conscience of one not over-hardened in iniquity, the author has not written in vain.

ART. 55.—*The Progress of the Pilgrim Good-Intent, in Jacobinical Times.* 3*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Hatchard. 1800.

The mode of teaching by allegory is, in many cases, amusing and instructive; and, on the plan of the Pilgrim's Progress, many useful admonitions are given in this little work to preserve the true Christian from the trials which now particularly beset him. Jacobinism, philosophism, mental energy, and infidelity, are well described; and the three maidens who have taken the places of Charity, Prudence, and Piety, are found by Good-Intent at suitable employments.

'Philanthropy sat in the window with a telescope, looking through the shades of night, which had now totally overspread the earth, for invisible objects of benevolence, in unknown regions. Mental-energy held in her hands a flint and steel, and struck out sparks, which, when her fostering breath had blown them into flame, had power to cause the heart to beat with tenfold violence; while the fumes of the smoke, ascending to the head, occasioned a dizziness of the brain, and a suspension of the reasoning faculties. Sensibility lay on a sopha, half bending herself over a young ass's colt, which she tenderly caressed, and bedewed with a copious shower of tears.' P. 116.

We have, in our younger days, been so much pleased with the simplicity of John Bunyan, that our taste is marred for the more refined style and thoughts in this production: yet young persons, who can understand the allegory contained in it, will see the vices of the times pourtrayed in their proper colours, and be well guarded against their delusions.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

*To the* EDITOR *of the* CRITICAL REVIEW.

'SIR,

'I AM sorry to find in the 11th article of your Review for May last, in which you review my Euclid, that you have, as it appears to me, mistaken the meaning of my definition of proportionals, and have restricted it to commensurable quantities. As this is done in your remark upon an extract you have given from my notes, in which I have shown that definition to be of the same extent with Euclid's, which is acknowledged by all to comprehend incommensurable quantities, it must lessen exceedingly not only the merit of the publication, but the character of the author, in the eyes of your readers; and, which is of much more extensive consequence, it must tend to divert the attention of mathematicians from the only principle upon which a general and accurate theory of proportion can be built, and a principle which could be applied with great success in all the branches of the mathematics. To obviate these consequences,

I hope you will see the reasonableness of publishing the following explication of that definition in your Review, that your readers may be enabled to judge for themselves.

'In the first definition of the fifth book the number by which one quantity contains another is defined to be always an integer. A line of eighteen feet, for example, or any line between that and twenty-four feet, is said to contain a line of six feet, three times; and this is the case whether the greater line be commensurable to the line of six feet or not, if it be between eighteen and twenty-four feet. Again, in the notes, two quantities are said to contain two others by the same number, when they are not less than some equimultiples of these others, but less than any greater multiples of them; so that the distinction between commensurable and incommensurable quantities is entirely avoided. In dividing incommensurable quantities there is a remainder, which is also the case sometimes in commensurable quantities; and it is necessary to estimate the effects of these remainders, in order to know what tendency they have to alter the ratio indicated by the quotients. This indeed at first sight appears difficult, but it is accomplished in a very simple and easy manner in the fifth definition.

'Suppose the doubles of the antecedents to be divided by the consequents, and to leave remainders; if we multiply by higher numbers, these remainders will be increased in proportion to the increase of the multiples; and therefore, by conceiving the antecedents to be multiplied by every number, the remainders will be varied in every way possible, and will produce all the effects they can have upon the quotients: hence if we find that, by whatever number we multiply the antecedents, the equimultiples produced will always contain the consequents by equal integers, we are certain that the remainders have no tendency to alter the ratio, and that the numbers are proportionals; or, as it is expressed in the notes, the ratios are equal when all the equimultiples of the antecedents contain the consequents by equal numbers. Now all this may be ascertained by multiplying the antecedents by only one number, if we consider it as representing any number whatever; that is, if we deduce no consequences from it but what can be inferred as well from any other number. This is the reason of my calling the multiple mentioned in the fifth definition not *some*, but *any multiple*, and of my saying in the notes that the multiples taken must represent any multiples whatsoever. Thus I have adopted a method by which the reasoning is general, extending to all quantities, and the conclusions direct and perfectly accurate.

'One observation more will lay open all the art I have used on this subject. When a learner of arithmetic is to be instructed how to divide numbers, he is first directed to multiply the divisor by the highest number that does not make it higher than the dividend, and the number he multiplies by is the quotient. This method is applicable to all quantities, and it is precisely the idea I affix to the word contain, and the very method I take to obtain the quotient.—I first multiply the antecedents by any number, and then I multiply one of the consequents by the highest number that does not make it greater than the multiple which I took of its antecedent; after which I demonstrate from the hypothesis that this is also the highest number by which I can multiply the other consequent, before it becomes greater than the multiple of its antecedent; from which it

becomes manifest that the quotients are equal, and the quantities proportionals. I do not, however, make use of the term *quotient*, because it is not generally restricted to integers, but means that number, whether integral, mixed, or fractional, by which the divisor, being multiplied, becomes equal to the dividend.

'Your criticism on p. 243 is perfectly just; and I make this acknowledgement the more cheerfully, because this minute criticism is an evidence that you have examined the work before censuring it, a precaution which, however necessary, is not always taken by some of your contemporaries. When writing that page, I thought the defect could be easily supplied by learners; but, upon reflexion, I see it would be too difficult for them; it may be supplied by a marginal reference to the axiom at the beginning of the twelfth book, and by adding the following words: "because it is greater than the tangents in the extremities of the arch, for it is composed of one of them, and of the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, of which the other is a leg." 'Your's, &c.

*July* 14, 1801. 'ALEXANDER INGRAM.'

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WE have printed the above letter from Mr. Ingram, concerning his edition of Euclid, to give him the opportunity he wished of defending the passage in question; and enabling our readers, as he says, to judge for themselves. But, that they may the better do so, it appears quite necessary to lay before them Mr. Ingram's fifth definition of the fifth book, which is as follows: 'The first of four magnitudes is said to have the same ratio to the second which the third has to the fourth; when as many times as any multiple of the first contains the second, so many times does the same multiple of the third contain the fourth:' a definition which is exactly in the form of one drawn from the equality of the quotients of commensurable quantities. If Mr. Ingram have adopted any other meaning to the expression, of one quantity *containing* another a certain number of times, than what is usual, as he says in his first definition, he is at liberty to enjoy the benefit of his alteration. For us, till we see better reason, we shall adhere to the definition and method of Euclid, perceiving little or no advantage in the phrase 'greater or not greater' beyond that of 'greater, equal, or less,' &c.

As to the assertion, p. 243, that the arch is greater than the sine, but less than its tangent; and the axiom at the beginning of the twelfth book, by which it is recommended to prove it, viz. that an arch is greater than its chord, but less than two tangents from its extremities to meet in the same point, they amount to no more than reasoning in a circle, or proving a fact from itself; the assertion and the axiom being in reality one and the same thing; for, bisecting the arch and its chord by a secant or line from the centre, passing through the point of concurrence of the two tangents, then each half arch has one of the said tangents for its tangent, and half the said chord for its sine. Indeed, we do not think there is either propriety or necessity for the property being assumed as an axiom: as an axiom it is deficient in evidence and genuine character; and it is certainly introduced without a necessity, since the property is capable of demonstration from the Elements.

# APPENDIX

TO

# THE THIRTY-SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

## *NEW ARRANGEMENT*

OF THE

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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ART. I.—*Premier Voyage autour du Monde, par le Chevalier Pigafetta, sur l'Escadre de Magellan, pendant les Années* 1519, 20, 21, *et* 22; *suivi de l'Extrait du Traité de Navigation, du même Auteur, et d'une Notice sur le Chevalier Martin Behaim, avec la Déscription de son Globe Terrestre. Orné de Cartes et de Figures.* Paris.

*The First Voyage round the World, by the Chevalier Pigafetta, with the Squadron of Magellan, during the Years* 1519, 20, 21, *and* 22; *followed by an Extract of the Treatise of Navigation, by the same Author, and a Dissertation on Martin Behaim, with a Description of his Terrestrial Globe. With Maps and Prints.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Imported by De Boffe. 1801.

AMIDST the singular circumstances which sometimes arise in the literary world, it may be regarded as somewhat surprising that, after a lapse of three centuries of commercial enterprise, and indefatigable attention to maritime affairs, the first voyage round the world should have remained unpublished, and almost unknown. Some English writers had indeed boldly assumed the merit of the first voyage of this kind to our countryman sir Francis Drake. The great Portuguese navigator, in the Spanish service, perished on his return; but one ship out of five re-visited Spain, and brought Pigafetta, who arises as it were from the dead, to claim this distinguished honour for his commander and himself.

We learn from a foreign journal that this interesting work was originally published in Italian, at Milan, from a MS. in the Ambrosian Library, so much enlarged by the notes of Dr. Amoretti as to constitute four volumes in folio. Formerly only an extract had appeared.

The French translator has prefixed an extensive preface, in which he first delineates the nature of the trade with the East Indies before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. The

conquest of the Moluccas by the Mahometans is cursorily mentioned; but it has repeatedly struck us, that a history of the Mahometan conquests in Asia and Africa is still wanting, and would be of the greatest importance in relation both to the progress of commerce and of science. The translator next explains the disputes which arose between the Spaniards and Portuguese, on account of the interference of their discoveries, which was settled by the papal line of demarcation. Having mentioned that the Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Diaz, accompanied by Cadamosto a Venetian navigator, in 1455, the translator adds, in a note, that he had seen a map at the convent of Murano, near Venice, drawn in 1450, by brother Mauro, in which that Cape was delineated. There seem to be here some remarkable mistakes; for the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope by Diaz, is, by all authors, ascribed to the year 1486. As to the map of 1450, it is probable that additions were afterwards made, or that an extremity of Africa, put at random, has been mistaken for the Cape. We are the more surprised at this, as the translator quotes his authorities with considerable care. The discoveries of the Portuguese having been sometimes concealed, for the sake of commercial advantages, their chronology has become considerably embroiled, and a series of dissertations on the more important points, illustrated from the original authors and documents, would be an acceptable present to the literary world.

The translator then explains the intention of Magalhaens, or, as we borrow his name from the French, Magellan, in the discovery of the strait called by his name.

'To be certain that Magellan sought this strait, because he had seen it laid down in a map by Martin of Bohemia (or Martin Behaim), we have only to read what Pigafetta says on the subject. We give his own words, such as they appear in the manuscript. It is surprising that this truth should be denied, which may be found in the extract of Pigafetta's book, published in French by Fabre, and in Italian by Ramusio; but it is still more surprising that this truth, so honourable for Martin of Bohemia, should have been denied by Mons. de Mull.'

This curious question is afterwards examined at some length, and it is shown that Behaim certainly knew that this strait existed before it was discovered by Magalhaens.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century the election of the Spaniard, Alexander VI. to the papal throne, and other circumstances, had opened considerable intercourse between Spain and Italy. Peter Martir, of Angera, a Milanese gentleman, had become historiographer of the Spanish court, and has left us a tolerable history of the Spanish discoveries—not to mention his letters, which contain several important facts. Anthony Piga-

fetta, the author of the present voyage, was a gentleman of Vicenza, of a noble family, which derived its origin from Tuscany, and probably son of Dr. Matthew Pigafetta, who was employed in the administration of affairs at Vicenza. During the pontificate of Leo X. our author visited Rome, whence he followed to Spain his fellow-citizen Chieri Cato, who was sent as ambassador to Charles V. by whose permission he embarked in the squadron of Magalhaens. Pigafetta chiefly excelled in astronomy and navigation; but, though otherways illiterate, he possessed unbounded curiosity, and has even collected vocabularies of the languages. Mons. de Pauw's insolent attack upon Pigafetta is ably repelled; and that pretended philosopher, but really fanatic in the cause of incredulity, has, amidst his rash decisions, laid himself so open to well-deserved reproofs, that his works on the Americans and the Chinese begin to sink into merited contempt, though that on the Greeks deserves the perusal of the candid inquirer. It is well known that the great navigator, Magalhaens, perished during this voyage; but Pigafetta was one of the eighteen persons who returned in a shattered vessel—the only one which remained of five ships, containing 237 mariners. Our author presented his account to the emperor, and another to the grand-master of Rhodes,—the latter of which has been fortunately preserved in the Ambrosian Library. He sent another copy into France, to the queen Louise of Savoy, regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son Francis I. The queen gave this book to be translated into French by Anthony Fabre, a Parisian man of letters, whose indolence induced him only to make an extract, which was printed in French with many errors, and afterwards translated into Italian, and published at Venice, 1536, 4to. from which edition it was re-published by Ramusio. The original was regarded as lost till it was discovered in the Ambrosian Library. The manuscript is written in a chancery hand, a small folio size, with illuminated maps and drawings. The language is impure, being mingled with the Venetian dialect, and many Spanish terms. Some of the drawings are here copied in *fac simile*.

It is remarkable that the French translator speaks as if his work had been transferred from the original manuscript, and is silent concerning the Italian edition,—yet, after the contents, there is a second title to this effect:—'A Voyage round the World, by the Chevalier Anthony Pigafetta, a gentleman of Vicenza; published for the first time in Italian, from a MS. in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, and illustrated with notes by Charles Amoretti, one of the librarians and doctors of the Ambrosian College, formerly secretary of the Patriotic Society of Agriculture and the Arts, &c. *and translated into French by the same.*'

It would appear, therefore, that the original editor, finding his

vast publication too expensive for general use or knowledge, has been induced to attire it in this popular French form.

After a dedication to Philip de Villiers Lisle Adam, grand-master of Rhodes, Pigafetta begins the account of this interesting voyage. The name of the commander or captain-general, whom we from the French call Magellan, is, by Pigafetta, written Magaglianes, and by the Spaniards Magallanes; but the real Portuguese name was Magalhaens. Our author mentions that he carefully concealed his design, that his crew might not be discouraged, while his own personal dangers were increased by the circumstance,—that he was himself a Portuguese, while the captains of the four other vessels were Spaniards.

After some regulations concerning the signals, which are here minutely explained, the squadron left Seville on the morning of Monday, the 10th of August, 1519. A few days after the commodore and other captains came on board at San Lucar, all the mariners were sent to confession, and it was forbidden that any woman should remain on board. Arriving at the Isle of Teneriffe, Pigafetta describes the noted tree which collects the vapours, and supplies the natives with water; and when our editor says, in a note, that this tree is unknown to recent descriptions, he evinces but a slender acquaintance with them, as the tree has been repeatedly mentioned. A few pages further on he shows a like unacquaintance with ornithology, when he denies that there is a sea-fowl which pursues others in order to catch their excrement—a circumstance which he might have seen confirmed by Pennant. We need not dwell on the description of Brasil, which Pigafetta calls *Verzino*, from a name formerly given to the red wood, called *brasil* by Chaucer, then imported from Asia and Africa, but which, being here found in abundance, imposed its name on the province, instead of deriving it thence, as has been generally imagined.

From Brasil our voyagers pursued their course to the S. W. along the American shore. The giants of Patagonia are introduced to our notice by Pigafetta, who gives a minute description of them. The editor, in a note, assents to the opinion of M. des Brosses, that only some individuals of some tribes can be regarded as of extraordinary stature. Their chief god, according to Pigafetta, is Setebos—a name familiar to the readers of Shakspeare.

A plot was now discovered against the life of Magalhaens, and the two chief conspirators were put to death.

'In continuing our route towards the south, on the 21st of October, being in the 52° of southern latitude, we discovered a strait which we called that of the Eleven Thousand Virgins, because the day was consecrated to their memory. This strait, as we afterwards found, is in length 440 miles, or 110 marine leagues,

being each of four miles: the general breadth is about half a league, sometimes more, sometimes less, and it terminates in another sea which we called the Pacific. The strait is surrounded with lofty mountains, covered with snow, and is also very deep, so that we could not throw the anchor except very near the land, and even then from 25 to 30 fathoms of water.

'All the mariners were so thoroughly persuaded that this strait had no outlet to the west, that we should not even have sought for it had it not been for the extensive knowledge of the captain-general. This man, as skilful as valiant, knew that he must pass through a strait which was difficult to discover, but which he had seen represented on a map, drawn by Martin of Bohemia, a most excellent cosmographer, and which the king of Portugal kept in his treasury.

'As soon as we entered this part, which we supposed to be a bay, the commander sent two vessels, the St. Anthony and the Conception, to examine where it ended; while we, with the Trinity and the Victory, waited for them at the entrance.

'In the night there arose a terrible tempest, which lasted thirty-six hours, and obliged us to abandon the anchors, and to enter a bay to which we were driven by the waves and wind. The two other vessels (one had been wrecked), which were as violently driven before the storm, could not double a cape to rejoin us; so that giving themselves up to the winds, which still bore them toward the bottom of what they supposed a bay, they expected every moment to be driven against it: but, at the instant they believed themselves lost, they saw a little opening which they took for a creek of the bay, where they took shelter; and seeing that this channel was not closed, they continued their course, and found themselves in a second, in which they pursued their route till they came to another strait, whence they passed into a third bay still larger than the former. Then, instead of proceeding to its extremity, they judged proper to return, that they might render an account to the commander of what they had seen.

'Two days had passed since these two vessels had left us, and we believed they had been lost in the tempest which we had just sustained. Seeing also some smoke on the land, we conjectured that those who had been so fortunate as to escape had lighted fires to announce to us their existence and distress. But, while we were thus uncertain concerning their fate, we saw them with full sails and ensigns displayed on their return towards us; and when they were nearer, they fired cannon and raised shouts of joy. We returned this salute; and when we had learned from them that they had seen the continuation of the bay, or, more properly speaking, of the strait, we joined them in order to continue our course, if it should be found possible.

'When we had entered into the third bay, of which I have spoken, we perceived two mouths, or channels—one to the S. E. and the other to the S. W. The commodore sent two vessels, the St. Anthony and the Conception, towards the S. E. to discover if that channel ended in the open sea. The first departed immediately, raising all her sails, without waiting for the second, which she wished to leave, because the pilot had an intention to avail himself of the darkness of the night, in order to change his course, and return to Spain by the same course that we came.

'This pilot was Stephen Gomez, who hated Magalhaens, because, when he came to Spain to propose to the emperor a passage to the Moluccas by the west, Gomez had requested, and was on the point of obtaining, some small vessels for an expedition of which he was to have been the commander. This expedition was intended to make new discoveries; but the arrival of Magalhaens occasioned a refusal, and he could only obtain the subaltern place of pilot: yet what enraged him the most was his being under the orders of a Portuguese. During the night he had formed a plot with the other Spaniards of the ship, who put in irons, and even wounded, the captain, Alvaro de Neschita, cousin-german of the commander-in-chief, and conducted him to Spain. They depended on carrying thither one of the two giants, whom we had taken, and who was aboard their vessel; but we learned on our return that he died on approaching the equinoxial, being incapable of supporting the extreme heat.

'The vessel called the Conception, not being able to meet with the St. Anthony, cruized in the channel, still vainly expecting her return.

'We had entered with the two other ships into the other channel to the S. W. and, pursuing our course, came to a river which we called the river of the Sardines, on account of the immense quantity of that fish. We anchored there to wait for the other vessels, and thus passed four days; but during this time a shalloop, well accoutred, was sent to discover the cape of this channel, which was supposed to end in another sea. The mariners, thus dispatched, returned on the third day, and announced to us that they had seen the cape where the strait terminated, and, beyond, a large sea, that is the ocean. We all wept for joy. This cape we called Dezeado, or the desired cape, because we had long wished to discover it.

'We returned to rejoin the two other vessels, and only found the Conception. We asked the pilot, John Serano, what had befallen the other ship; and he answered, that he believed it lost, for he had not seen it since he had entered the channel. The commodore gave orders to search for it every-where, but particularly in the channel where he had penetrated; and he

sent the Victory to the mouth of the strait, ordering, that if the other ship were not found, a banner should be planted on a lofty spot, at the foot of which was to be placed, in a small pot, a letter indicating the course about to be taken, that the ship which was missing might follow the squadron:—this mode of intelligence, in case of separation, having been agreed on at the time of our departure. Two other similar signals were planted, in like manner, upon eminences near the first bay, and upon a little isle of the third, on which we saw a number of sea-wolves and birds. The commander, with the Conception, waited the return of the Victory near the river of Sardines, and caused a cross to be raised on a small isle at the foot of two mountains covered with snow, whence the river derives its origin.

'In case we had not discovered this strait, passing from one sea to the other, the commander had determined to continue his course as far as the 75°th of southern latitude; where, during summer, there is no night, or at least very little, as there is no day in winter. While we were in the strait we had only three hours of night, and this was in the month of October.

'The land near the strait, which to the left bends to the S. E. is low. We called it the Strait of Patagonians. At every half league there was a good haven, excellent water, cedar-wood, sardines, and great abundance of shell-fish. There were also herbs, of which some were bitter, but others good to eat; above all, a kind of mild celery, which grows near the springs, and on which we lived for want of superior aliment. In fine, I believe there is not in the world a better strait than this.'

Such is the curious and interesting account of this discovery. On the remainder of the voyage we need not much enlarge. Pigafetta proceeds to inform us, that on the 28th of November they entered the great ocean, which *they* afterwards called the Pacific, by an appellation sufficiently absurd, merely because Magalhaens did not here encounter a single tempest, while other navigators have had no reason to maintain the justness of the term. He crossed the Pacific towards the N. W. and arrived at the Islands of Robbers, afterwards called the Marianne Islands, from the name of Mary of Austria. Pigafetta makes several mistakes, not unusual in that age, supposing that the Cipangu of Marco Polo lies to the south of the equator, and that Sumatra is the Taprobana of antiquity. They afterwards arrive at the Philippine Islands, and the account of Butuan is minute and curious. The representation of the isles called Zubu and Mattam, in the latter of which Magalhaens was slain, is copied from the drawing in the MS. At Zubu, or Zebu, Magalhaens was occupied with the conversion of the inhabitants; and a

chief of Mattam, or Matan*, having sent thither to request assistance against another chief who would not acknowledge the power of Spain, the commodore rashly determined to proceed thither in person, at the head of 60 men, followed by a considerable force from Zubu.

'We however waited for the return of day, and then leaped into the water up to our middle—the shalloops not being able to approach the land on account of the rocks and shallows. We were 49 in all, having left eleven men to guard our shalloops; and we were obliged to march for some time in the water before we could gain land.

'We found the islanders, to the number of 1500, formed in three battalions, who immediately rushed against us with a horrible noise,—two of these battalions attacking us in flank, and the third in front. Our commodore then divided his troop into two platoons. The musketeers and the cross-bowmen charged from a distance during half an hour, doing little or no damage to the enemy; for though the balls and the arrows penetrated their thin bucklers of board, and sometimes even wounded their arms, they were not intimidated (because that the wounds did not kill them suddenly, as they had pre-conceived), but, on the contrary, they became more bold and furious. Besides trusting to their superior numbers, they threw clouds of reed-lances, stakes hardened in the fire, stones, and even clods of earth—so that it was difficult to defend ourselves. There were some who darted stakes shod with iron against our commodore; who, in order to disperse and intimidate them, ordered some of us to set fire to their hovels—which was executed immediately. The sight of the flames only rendered them more fierce and eager, and some of them even ran to the spot of the conflagration, which consumed between twenty and thirty houses, while they slew two of our people. Their number appeared to increase, as well as the impetuosity with which they threw themselves upon us. A poisoned arrow pierced the leg of the commodore, who immediately ordered us to retreat slowly, and in good order: but the greater part of our men took flight precipitately, so that scarcely seven or eight of us remained with the commander.

'The Indians perceiving that their blows did us no harm, when levelled at our heads or bodies, on account of the armour, but that our legs were without defence, they directed their missile weapons against that part, in so great a quantity, that we could not resist. The cannon, which we had on board the shalloops, were of no utility, because the shallows did not permit them to approach sufficiently. We retired by little and little,

* Mactan, to the east of Zebu, in Mr. Arrowsmith's excellent map of Asia.

maintaining the combat, and we were already at the distance of a cross-bow shot, and up to the knees in water, when the islanders, who followed us close, sometimes took up and threw against us the same lance five or six times. As they knew Magalhaens, it was chiefly against him that they directed their weapons—so that twice they beat the helmet from his head. Nevertheless he did not yield, and we few continued to fight by his side. This unequal combat continued near an hour. An islander at last succeeded in wounding with his lance the forehead of the commodore, who in a rage pierced the savage with his, and left it in his body. Magelhaens then tried to draw his sword, but this was impossible, because his right arm was grievously wounded. The Indians, who perceived this fatal circumstance, all advanced towards him, and one struck him so terrible a blow with a sabre, on the left leg, that he was about to fall on his face, when a crowd of enemies threw themselves upon him. Thus perished our guide, our light, our support! When he fell, and perceived himself overwhelmed with enemies, he repeatedly turned towards us, to see if we could save ourselves. As there was not a man among us who was not wounded, and none of us were able to succour or revenge him, we immediately withdrew to our shalloops, which were about to depart. It was therefore to our commander that we owed our safety, because, that at the moment when he perished, all the islanders crowded to the spot where he fell.

'The newly-baptised king of Zubu might, no doubt, have assisted us, and would have done it, had not the captain-general, far from foreseeing what had happened when he landed with his people, ordered the king not to leave his barge, but to remain a mere spectator of our way of fighting. He wept bitterly when he saw him fall.

'But the glory of Magalhaens will survive his death. He was adorned with all the virtues, and showed the greatest constancy in the midst of the greatest adversities. At sea he condemned himself to greater privations than the rest of the mariners. More conversant than any other in the knowledge of charts, he perfectly possessed the art of navigation, as he proved in making a circuit of the world which no person had attempted before him.

'This unhappy battle was fought on the 27th of April, 1521, being Saturday—a day which the commodore had himself chosen, because he held it in particular devotion. Eight of our people, and four baptised Indians, fell with him, and few among us returned to our ships without being wounded.'

Thus perished this great navigator;—and the subsequent part of the voyage is little interesting. The account of the Molucca Isles cannot be supposed to present much novelty at the present

day. On the 9th of July, 1522, they discovered the Isles of Cape Verd, and found that they had lost a day, as usual with circumnavigators of the globe. On the 6th of September, 1522, they arrived in the bay of San Lugar; and of 60 men, who formed their equipment when they left the Moluccas, only 18 remained who were mostly sick.

The vocabularies collected by Pigafetta our editor has judiciously placed at the end, collating them with those of other navigators.

The extract from the treatise on navigation may be found amusing, as it shows the progress of the science.

In the dissertation concerning Behaim the author strongly controverts some positions of Dr. Robertson. He describes the globe of Behaim as being dated 1510, and thus long posterior to the discoveries of Columbus, which some enthusiasts assert that they suggested. Martin Behaim was born at Nuremberg, about 1430, and derived his surname from the circumstance that his ancestors had come from Bohemia. He married the daughter of a Flemish gentleman who discovered the Isle of Fayal, one of the Azores, where he settled. The author shows that Columbus was not in the least indebted to Behaim for the idea of his discoveries, and that he was evidently a man of very great intelligence for that period.

It has been already mentioned that the date of the meridian on the globe is 1510, but a long inscription assigns the execution to 1492; yet the author is more occupied with the description of this globe than with settling its chronology, which is the most important point of the business. The year in which the magistrates mentioned in the inscription were elected, and other circumstances, however minute, which tend to authenticate the date, should have been carefully examined in the first instance; instead of which we find a waste of erudition on subjects little interesting. Yet it seems certain that Martin Behaim died on the 20th of July, 1506.

Upon the whole, this is one of the most interesting works which has recently fallen under our perusal, and a translation of it would be found acceptable to the general reader.

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ART. II.—*Annales de Chymie. Tomes XXXII et XXXIII.* Paris. 1801.

*Annals of Chemistry.* *(Continued from Vol. XXX. p. 524.)*

M. Rouppe, professor of chemistry and pharmacy at Rotterdam, has communicated to Van Mons some very valuable experiments on the absorption of several gases by charcoal perfectly extinguished; and with this paper the thirty-second volume

opens. The subject, though not pursued very deeply, shows that it is capable of being extended to some of the most important operations; since by this mean the most active substances, as oxygen, hydrogen, and azote, are rendered more manageable, and can be combined directly in different proportions, so as to form several substances, whose synthetical composition was not before practicable. It has not been hitherto in the power of chemists to combine more than one of these bases immediately; and they were obliged to separate it from bodies by a superior power of attraction. The two other bases, hydrogen and azote, were in general more powerfully retained. Another advantage is, that charcoal neither combines nor mixes with other bodies but in a red heat, except in hydrogenated solutions; so that we can separate the substances formed by its assistance in a state of perfect purity, and apply the gases, with which it is charged, to every kind of body, even to fluids.

From the experiments which our author made with M. Van Noorden, it appears that many gases are capable of uniting with charcoal in greater or less quantity, and in different circumstances, when the charcoal, previously heated, is cooled without the access of air. In this state also gases admit of combination, which they refuse in their elastic state, and are capable of decomposing other gases. It was before known that charcoal, cooled in a vacuum, would absorb air admitted to it. Fontana, Priestley, and Scheele, have mentioned the fact, and Morveau found the whole of the air in a receiver absorbed.—Morozzo discovered that carbonic acid air, ammoniacal, muriatic, and sulphurated hydrogen airs, were most copiously absorbed; the nitrous, sulphureous, atmospheric, oxygenous, and hydrogenous airs, were less so, in the order in which we have enumerated them. Our author pursued the subject in a variety of other experiments, for which we must refer to the volume, and ascertained not only the facts mentioned, but that the hydrogen was absorbed almost instantaneously, and that the absorption then ceased. The same was observable, particularly in the beginning, with the carbonic acid air, which is dissolved in a large proportion; but oxygenous, nitrous, and atmospheric air, though absorbed with some rapidity at first, continued to be absorbed afterwards. These airs are absorbed without any change, at the common heat of the air, or more freely at even a lower temperature: a degree of heat less than that of boiling water will again separate the air. It appeared also that charcoal, charged with oxygen, and put in contact with hydrogen, occasioned a diminution of the bulk of gas in general, and that a watery vapour was observable. In nitrous gas the same charcoal produced a rapid and considerable absorption. Charcoal, charged with azote, and placed in atmospheric air, soon deprived the latter of its oxygen, but had no effect on hydrogenous

gas. Van Mons, in his additions to this paper, has pointed out many important subjects of experiment, to which these remarks may lead, and some interesting circumstances, which they may illustrate.

M. Proust's Researches on Copper relate to some minute chemical inquiries into the nature of the different cupreous salts, which are interesting only to the more curious and scientific chemist, who will probably choose to examine them at length.

An Abstract of the Experiments and Observations on different Species of Milk, considered in their different Relations to Chemistry, Medicine, and Rural Œconomy, by MM. Parmentier and Deyeux, follow.—This is a paper published at Strasburg about two or three years ago, which we have already announced, and which requires no further examination. Little that is new has been added to what has progressively appeared in the English language.

M. Morveau's Observations on the Diamond assuming the State of Charcoal, and on the Black Oxyd of Charcoal, we have noticed, with the author's former experiments, in our XXXth volume.

MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin's second Memoir on Urine we have also noticed; together with the first, in the same volume.

Count Muschen Puschin's Experiments on the Ore of the Red Lead of Siberia (the Chrome) will not admit of abridgement.

What we have styled the Chemical Gossipings of M. Scherer are contained in the proximate paper. We shall make a few extracts from this and the succeeding article by M. Fourcroy, entitled 'Chemical Views, extracted from the correspondence of several learned strangers, and on the state of this science in France.'

M. Scherer informs us, that, of the detonating salts, the power increases in proportion to their oxygenation, and that that which produces the strongest re-percussion is the sulphat of potash. To procure the mineral purple, the following is the most certain process (a recipe of M. Lentin of Göttingen).—A saturated solution of tin, by the assistance of heat, is filtered, and so much nitrous acid added, as that a drop of the united acids shall precipitate a beautiful powder of cassius (a rich purple) from a weak solution of gold.

As common Ink may be destroyed by the oxygenated muriatic acid, Westramb proposes the following, as wholly indelible:—An ounce of logwood, with three ounces of galls, is boiled in thirty-six ounces of water till reduced to thirty-two ounces. This decoction, while warm, is poured on half an ounce of sulphat of iron, two drachms of gum-arabic, and as much white sugar; and to the solution is added an ounce and quarter of indigo, and three

quarters of an ounce of lamp-black, mixed with an ounce of spirit of wine.—We shall subjoin M. Bosse's more simple receipt: An ounce of logwood is boiled with twelve ounces of water and half an ounce of alum; when reduced to eight ounces it is filtered, and an ounce of fine oxyd of manganese, with half an ounce of gum-arabic, are added.

M. Fourcroy gives an interesting abstract of a Letter from M. Westring on the different Species of Bark and their comparative Virtues, of which we have anticipated the substance in an extract from Mr. Hatchett's excellent paper on corallines, &c. in the Philosophical Transactions. He thinks the yellow bark by much the most active; but the species of cinchona which produces it is not known. The fine red bark, of which none is to be found in the shops, approaches very near it. The Caribbæan bark is useless as a medicine. In general the tonic power is in proportion to the quantity of tanin, and very different from the astringent power: something added (in our author's opinion an inflammable principle) renders the astringent power also a tonic. The presence of resin injures, he thinks, the tanning power; and the decoction of bark should be boiled only a few minutes. To the former list of indigenous febrifuges he adds the urtica urens.

M. Fourcroy subjoins a Letter from F. Brugnatelli, respecting the Analysis of Urinary Calculi. These two chemists also differed. The white calculi contained acidulated phosphat of chalk, and sometimes of chalk and magnesia. These ingredients Fourcroy seldom found; but this fact only adds to the numerous experiments, which have shown the great diversity of urinary calculi, even of different laminæ of the same calculus. A more singular fact, which M. Fourcroy confirms, viz. the rapid, almost instantaneous change of the uric into the oxalic acid only by a momentary contact of oxygenated muriatic gas. A calculus of a stag was found to consist of very pure carbonat of lime. In another instance the calculus of a hog contained only phosphat of lime. The extract of the willow, like some other vegetable substances, treated with the nitric acid, becomes a very indestructible bitter, of a yellow colour, resembling, in this respect, animal substances.

The account of the State of Chemistry in England and France has, in more than one passage, raised a smile. If it have not yet been translated, it would not be improper for some magazine: we suspect, however, that it has been already published in an English dress.

M. Abilgaard, at the end of a descriptive catalogue of new fossils from Norway, gives an account of two facts: the one relates to the de-oxydation of mercury in the Torricellian vacuum by light alone, producing at the same time some drops of water; the other to the gas supposed by M. Wurzer to have been obtained from boiling water. It appears that M. Wurzer was

deceived by the obstinacy with which water retains its last portion of air.—We return now to the articles in their order.

The relation of the new French weights to those employed by the German chemists may be useful beyond the empire; since the Nuremberg pound, and all its subdivisions, are exactly similar to the apothecaries' weight in England. The different French weights are expressed in Nuremberg grains.

M. Ekeberg, in his memoir on the Phosphat of Lime, proposes many different methods of decomposing the salt, which we cannot abridge. This salt is very universally diffused in the animal kingdom, and probably in the vegetable, as it is found in the coaly residuum of the glutinous part of wheat and in the coal of mustard; but it is doubted whether the union of the acid with the lime be not subsequent to the escape or destruction of the oxalic acid.

M. Vauquelin's Experiments on the Mixtures of Tin and Lead, with a view of inquiry how far the latter may be affected by vinegar, sharp wine, or oil, contribute to destroy the bugbear which has been raised respecting the deleterious effects of acids on such compounds. In the proportion of eighteen parts of lead to eighty-two of tin no effect was produced by the continued contact of the sharpest vinegars or of the sourest wines. When in a proportion to be affected by acids, a drop of these produces a whitish powder where it touches the metal. Oil had no effect whatever.

A report on the memoir of Citizen Thenart, on the different States of Oxyd of Antimony, and its Combinations with the Sulphurated Hydrogen, by M. Guyton Morveau, is highly valuable. We have constantly regretted the uncertainty of antimonial medicines, without being aware of the real state of the metal in different preparations. Our author recognises, in the different preparations, six degrees of oxydation. The first is black—and it is in this state that antimony is precipitated from its solutions by zinc and iron; it contains 0.02 of oxygen. The second is a reddish brown, prepared by heating the white oxyds, and expelling the excess of their oxygen; it contains 0.16 of pure air; and in this state is the constituent part of glass of antimony (the sulphureous glassy oxyd) and of kermes-mineral (hydro-sulphurated oxyd containing sulphur), when recently prepared, and guarded from the air. The third is of an orange colour, the sulphur auratum, compounded as the former, taking care to check the de-oxydation a little sooner: it contains 0.18 of oxygen. The fourth is yellow, containing about .19 of oxygen. The fifth is white, made directly by sublimation, generally styled argentine flowers, containing 0.20 of oxygen. These may be prepared from kermes, the golden sulphur, or glass of antimony, by dissolving them in the muriatic acid; for there is then a new oxydation at the expence of the air, procured by the decomposition of water. This oxyd may also be

generated from the butter of antimony, generally supposed, though without reason, to be an oxygenated muriat. It exists in the same degree in tartrites of antimony, in whatever manner they be prepared; and the powder of algaroth differs only by its retaining some portion of acid. The sixth is also white, and is called the ceruse of antimony, containing 0.32 of oxygen. The washed diaphoretic antimony is of this kind, and differs only by still retaining a quantity of pot-ash. The ceruse of antimony does not combine with cream of tartar, though it unites with tartareous acid. As the kermes is liable to attract oxygen from the atmosphere, it is evident that it ought to be carefully preserved from the external air; and on this account it is occasionally unequal in its effects. Since the emetic tartars contain the metal in one constant state of oxygenation, we need not be anxious from what preparation of antimony they be made. The different effects of this medicine are sometimes owing to the different states of the stomach, sometimes to its not being carefully crystallised, and sometimes, we suspect, to the powder of algaroth being used without cautiously separating the acid. Kermes, recently prepared, contains in 100 grains 20.298 of sulphurated hydrogen, 4.156 of sulphur, 72.760 of the reddish brown oxyd of antimony—the water and the loss amounting to 2.786. The true menstruum of the kermes, it appears from our author's experiments, is not pot-ash, but a sulphurated alkaline hydro-sulphur. The kermes obtained directly from the sulphurated hydrogen and the oxyd described differ only from the usual preparation in not containing sulphur. The sulphur auratum exhibits 68.3 of the orange-coloured oxyd, joined to 17.877 of the sulphurated hydrogen, and a very small proportion of sulphur. Their colour is owing to the different states of oxygenation of the metal.

M. Chaptal's report respecting M. Schmidt's Stove cannot be abridged. It is a modification of Dr. Franklin's.

Barruel's Descriptive Tables of Natural Philosophy are equally incapable of abridgement, and by no means interesting.

The apparatus of M. M. Girard, in imitation of Wolfe's, without lutes, described in the following paper, is now sufficiently known to practical chemists; and the method of making Parmesan cheese, which succeeds to it, can be perused only with advantage in the author's own words.

M. Payen, in his method of obtaining soda from sulphat of soda, produced a singular salt, which has, it is said, been employed with advantage in medicine. It is white, and perfectly transparent, crystallising in prisms with four planes, inclining to each other, and terminated at their extremities by very short pyramids. Its taste is cooling, bitter, and at last slightly alkaline, leaving in the mouth a trifling flavour of sulphur. It has no smell, and does not deliquesce. M. Payen thought it a

sulphurated hydro sulphur of soda; but M. Vauquelin, with greater exertion of chemical skill than the subject deserved, concludes it to be a combination of a sulphat of soda with sulphur.

M. Chaptal's report on the quality of the bottles made by M. Saget is very satisfactory. These bottles are strong, of equal thickness, and resist rapid changes of great heat and cold, as well as the violent expansions of air in fermentations.

M. Trommsdorff's Letter to Van Mons contains nothing peculiarly interesting, except perhaps the discovery of the gallic acid in gum-arabic. It was known to be a vegetable oxyd from former experiments.

We mean not to enlarge on M. Martin's memoir on the Red Sulphurated Oxyd of Mercury, called Red Cinnabar, because practical chemists will read it entire. It is sufficient to give the outline of his process. Cinnabar has been usually brought from Holland, and it has been generally thought that the brilliancy of its colour is owing to its being prepared in large masses. Our author tells us that this is not true, and that the whole art consists in furnishing the metal with the full proportion of oxyd necessary to enable it to combine with the sulphur. This is effected in the composition, and the mercury must be oxydated at the expence of the acidification of the sulphur, effected by its combustion; hence the chemical appellation of cinnabar, viz. the sulphurated oxyd of mercury.

M. Morveau's Chemical Gleanings are not of great value. In some bottles it is remarked that the earth is in too large proportion, and is liable to be attacked by acids: the proofs are, it is said, more satisfactory if made by the weaker acids.—Syrup of violets, obtained from flowers too much blown, is sometimes spontaneously red. And M. Guyton adds some observations on the change of colour of oxyds by light, in the instances adduced by count Rumford. In those experiments our present author shows that there is some ambiguity, and he seems inclined to refer the changes rather to the heat than the light of the sun.

The first memoir of the thirty-third volume is the fourth on Areömetry, by M. Hassenfratz, on Alcograde, or the Proportion of Alcohol to Water, in any given mixture. We have not enlarged on these memoirs, because the details are too minute for this journal, and scarcely admit of an abstract. We need not remind our readers of the disquisitions with which the subject before us has occasionally been illustrated, nor of the labours of sir Charles Blagden and others in our own Transactions. It is sufficient to observe that M. Hassenfratz has examined the publications of all his predecessors, and gives a very able and comprehensive abstract of the whole subject.

The second memoir of M. Deyeux, entitled 'Observations on Plasters, and their Preparation,' reminds us of an omission

we have been guilty of, viz. not mentioning the union of the 'Annals' with the 'Journal of Pharmacy.' It took place some months previous to the date of the cahier, the number before us, which is in the 30th Nivose of the year VIII, answering to the middle of January of last year. The whole of the subject of this paper is treated with great judgement and a superior degree of chemical skill, altogether refusing abridgement. An observation or two we may select.

The drying oils furnish a much softer plaster than the other kinds; but those which are not drying, as olive oil, will have the properties of the former in this process by being previously boiled with mucilaginous substances, as the roots of marsh-mallows, lin-seed, and particularly fœnugrec seed. The oils not drying are the best for plasters; but, unfortunately, they are, in our author's opinion, almost constantly adulterated by the mixture of others. This, at least, is the case with olive oil. Another remark is, that the proportion of oil usually directed for softening plasters that are become hard with age is improper: in several, particularly the diapalma, it should be augmented. As the external air also changes the colour of many plasters, they should be carefully guarded from its access. The author promises to pursue these inquiries.

M. Achard's work on the Culture of Beet, designed for the manufacture of sugar in Europe, is abridged by Van Mons, but admits not of farther analysis.

A note on Oxygen, considered as a remedy, communicated by M. Grille, with the reflexions of Parmentier on the subject, deserves notice. The workmen in the manganese mines at Mâcon are never subject to the itch, and the neighbouring peasants affected with the disease are soon cured by labouring in the mine. Cloths hung up in it soon acquire a brilliant whiteness, and coloured cloths rapidly fade. M. Grille has produced the same effects by an ointment of three parts of the ore, finely powdered, mixed with eight parts of axunge. M. Parmentier adds, that the nightmen are equally exempted from the itch, as well as from the erysipelas and chaps on the hands. If any new assistant be affected by either, the diseases soon disappear. Many will think even *sulphur* a much sweeter remedy.

A memoir on Elasticity, by M. Barruel, follows, or rather an abstract of the memoir by M. Bouillon Lagrange. The author's object is to show that the causes of elasticity usually assigned are either vague or erroneous, and that this phænomenon is at least *connected* with caloric. In the particular explanations there are many difficulties, and, in our opinion, much absurdity. The elasticity of caloric is first assumed as a datum; but a theory to illustrate elasticity must not be confounded by the supposition of a body necessarily elastic. If caloric be necessarily elastic, so may other bodies be. Besides, when our author explains

the elasticity given to metals by hammering, from the idea of their molecules being more closely compressed, he ought to know that heat is separated in the operation; and from his principle the metal should be less elastic.

M. Libes, in his 'Theory of Elasticity, founded on facts, and supported by calculation,' in his late work, abridged in the memoir which follows, pursues the same system. We cannot form a just idea of his calculation from the very slight abstract before us; but his doctrine seems equally untenable with that of M. Barruel. Indeed we know that elasticity is 'connected,' as we have expressed ourselves, with caloric; but there are many distinctions to be made, and much previous inquiry is requisite, before the mode of its operation, in producing this effect, can be ascertained.

M. Brugnatelli's memoir on the Ammoniure of Cobalt, and on an Acid contained in the grey Oxyd of this Metal, usually called Zaffre, is translated by Van Mons. The metallic ammoniures have not been examined with attention. Those of cobalt seem to consist of two portions; the one a pure oxyd, the other ammonia, joined with a peculiar acid, which our author calls the *cobaltic* acid. This acid is a concrete, not volatile, of a red or pale yellow colour, and sometimes colourless; the acid taste is pungent, and not disagreeable. It turns the infusion of turnsol to a bright red, is perfectly soluble in water, decomposes alkaline sulphurs, precipitates the sulphat and the ammoniure of copper in clear green, and of zinc, acetite of lead, nitrat of silver, and nitro-muriat of tin, in white precipitates. It does not sensibly change the solutions of gold and platina, but precipitates lime from lime water, in a white coagulum insoluble in water, and in an excess of acid. It precipitates the acetites and muriats of barytes, and is separated from its solution in water by alcohol: it is also a sympathetic ink, which, on warming, becomes of a dark brown, and, with newly-made tincture of galls, throws down a copious yellow precipitate. It differs from arsenic in some essential particulars, and the acid is apparently not produced in the process.

A report on the Artificial Mineral Waters prepared at Paris, at the new manufactory of M. Paul of Geneva, is a very important and interesting essay. In England they are prepared, we believe, in the same variety, and perhaps with the same skill, by M. Schweppe. M. Fourcroy gives a short history of the preparation of artificial mineral waters, and then adds an analysis of M. Paul's memoir on the subject, explaining the qualities and uses of the different waters which he prepares. He next describes the preparation of the strong and mild Seltzer waters, which differ only in the latter containing a somewhat less proportion of fixed air, and that procured by means of fire; the strong and weak Spa waters, the former

comprising a double quantity of iron; the aërial alkaline water; the Sedlitz water; the oxygenated, the hydrogenated, the hydro-carbonate, the weak and strong hydro-sulphurated waters. Observations on these waters follow. They are in general highly commended; but, on the whole, they are said to possess a much less proportion of air than they are supposed to hold, and the iron is in some degree deposited. The oxygenated water, which contains, it is said, half its bulk of oxygen, is supposed to form a valuable addition to the Materia Medica; the fixed air, extracted by fire, is conceived to be much milder and more agreeable to the stomach than that produced by effervescence. This method is considered as an improvement; but the medicinal effects of the air are not yet ascertained.

M. Alibert's dissertation on malignant Intermittent Fevers we have had occasion to notice in another part of our journal. M. Bouillon Lagrange has abstracted a part of it particularly connected with the subjects of the Annals: it is a passage in which he endeavours to show that the eudiometer cannot give any satisfactory or just idea of the salubrity of the atmosphere. The septic particles, which produce the worst fevers, may, he remarks, so far as we know, be conveyed by the oxygen itself. Indeed he has shown, by experiment, that the air of places in which a person cannot sleep a single night without experiencing a malignant intermittent appears by the eudiometer purer than the air of Monte Legnano, and other places of acknowledged celebrity. His method of ascertaining the nature of the water dissolved in air is ingenious, but has been long since employed in England in the form of a globe, filled with pounded ice, which condenses the fluid in the atmosphere by the cold which it diffuses around.

The report of the work of M. Clavelin on the Statical Principles of Air and Water, applied to the construction of Chimneys, will not admit of abridgement with any advantage. Our author first treats of the principles of the statics of air and water; secondly, of the influence of these principles in our houses; thirdly, of the variety in the constructions of grates and chimneys arising from the former considerations.

A note respecting the fog which occurred at Maestricht in January 1800, by M. Paissé, is of trivial importance. It gives an account of the state of the thermometer during the time of the fog, which adds little to our information of the cause. The fog was highly fetid and acrid, equally so in the country and the town. M. Parmentier, in his 'Reflexions' on this note, gives some very judicious advice respecting the method of attaining a knowledge of the nature of these appearances.—A fog he observed at Paris was highly fetid; but this was from the voluminous smoke of a neighbouring manufactory: the fetor was not distinguishable in the country.

An extract of a letter from M. Girtanner to Van Mons, on the Analysis of Azote, contains also a repetition of his claim to the discovery of the basis of the muriatic acid. He contends still that it is hydrogen, but that the acid contains a much smaller proportion of oxygen than of water. 'Azote,' he asserts, 'is composed of hydrogen and oxygen, in the proportions of 0.21 and 0.79; so that it is only an oxyd of hydrogen.' 'All our eudiometry,' he adds, 'is false, since the azote is the product of our eudiometrical analyses, and did not exist in the air before the experiment. Alumine is the most convenient substance to convert atmospheric air into azote. This is the principle of making nitre, so anxiously sought in France at the commencement of the war, and now discovered by my experiments. Hydrogen may be transformed to azote by respiration. The oxygen, of which a part is always condensed in the lungs, joins the hydrogen, and produces azote. The same effect is generated by exposing hydrogenous gas to moistened clay.' M. Girtanner's assertions, in general, are more ingenious than accurate, more frequently positive than true. Chemists have not hitherto assented to his doctrine respecting azotes; but we shall have occasion to return to the subject in our next Appendix, where the experiments will be noticed at full length.

M. Bouillon Lagrange's Reflexions on the Reforms necessary to be made in the French Pharmacopœiæ are divided into two parts: the first consists of a critique on the new Prussian dispensatory; the second a plan for a new French Pharmacopœia: the last is in the thirty-fourth volume. Of the criticisms it is impossible to give an abstract: they relate rather to the choice of the preparations than to the mode of compounding them, and contain few observations that are interesting. We should be inclined to abridge the Pharmacopœia much farther than our author. His plan for the new French Dispensatory is by much too chemical. The arrangement should undoubtedly be a pharmaceutical one; the preparations alone should be of a chemical nature: but the principal point the greater number of authors who have compiled dispensatories have overlooked. They have not drawn the line between pharmaceutical preparations and extemporaneous prescriptions: they have not distinguished between formulæ, intended only as models for imitation, and preparations to be constantly kept. Our own college has undoubtedly limited the number of formulæ too strictly: the foreign pharmacopœiæ are still too full and operose.

An abstract of a memoir of MM. Buniva and Vauquelin on the Liquor Amnii of a Woman and a Cow.—The former contains a very small proportion of either animal or saline matter, the whole amounting to 0.012 of the fluid. The substances dissolved are albumen, soda, muriat of soda, and phosphat of lime. When undergoing the putrid fermentation, a white mat-

ter, resembling cheese, is deposited, a small quantity of ammonia is evolved, without any gas or bad smell. The matter deposited on the body of the fetus is of the softness and consistence of soap. It appears to be a mixture of animal mucilage and fat; but the authors seem rather to think it albumen, which has degenerated to a fatty matter—a circumstance not surprising, since a fetus in the ovarium, or Fallopian tubes, changes wholly to a substance of this kind.

The liquor amnii of a cow is of a deeper colour, of an acid and bitterish taste, with a smell analogous to some vegetable extracts; of a specific gravity equal to 1.028, and a viscidity approaching that of a solution of gum. This fluid contains, in a large proportion, the sulphat of soda, a peculiar acid, and extractive matter. The extractive matter is a very singular substance, soluble in water, insoluble in alcohol. This last property, joined to the viscidity which enables it to form a lather by agitation, brings it very near the mucous substances; but it differs from animal mucilages in not being convertible to jelly, and not combining with tanin. It is decomposed by nitric acid, but does not form in consequence of the union, at least in any perceptible quantity, vegetable acid, as generally happens, from the addition of nitrous acid to organic substances. Carbonic acid, on the contrary, is separated with azote mixed with nitrous gas. The acid differs both from the sacchalactic and uric acids, which it at first appears to resemble; and is truly an animal acid, as it contains azote. Our author styles it the amniotic acid.

An extract from Crell's Annals of Chemistry for the Year 1799 follows, in which we do not find a single passage which deserves our notice, except count Rumford's Observations on Light, which have long since been the subject of our observations.

M. Chaptal's essay on the Means of rendering the Chemical Arts in France more perfect we cannot abridge. It is to the English reader totally uninteresting.

M. Andreossy's memoirs, the last in the present volume, on Lake Menzaleh, and on the Valley of the Lakes of Natron, we have already examined in the English translation; and several other papers in the same collection have been purposely passed over by us, on a similar account, without notice.

ART. III.—*Voyage en Grèce et en Turquie, fait par Ordre de Louis XVI. et avec l'Autorisation de la Cour Ottomane, par C. S. Sonnini, de plusieurs Sociétés littéraires et savantes de l'Europe. Avec un Volume grand en 4to. contenant une belle Carte colorée, et des Planches gravées en Taille douce.* Paris. 1801.

*Travels in Greece and Turkey, performed by Order of Lewis XVI. and with the Authority of the Ottoman Court, by C. S. Sonnini, Member of several learned and literary Societies in Europe. With a large Volume in 4to. containing a beautiful coloured Chart, and the Plates engraved in Aqua-tinta.* 2 *Vols.* 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

SONNINI is well known to the English reader as a pleasing traveller and a judicious naturalist. Where France and the glory of the French nation are not concerned, we find him equally faithful and intelligent; but have much reason to suspect that his details are warped by political considerations, and that many of his representations are not only those which he believed to be true, but which he thought it expedient to convey. The same suspicion must be kept alive with respect to the present publication, in which the traveller describes the former oppressed state of Greece, and catches the first dawn of a new and a brighter day. At the moment he published, at the moment we write, the armaments, of whatever nation, destined for the relief of Egypt may be ultimately designed to fix more firmly a yoke on the devoted Greeks. The names of the tyrants may be changed, but the despotism may perhaps be the same.

The expedition to Egypt, he observes, was the subject of astonishment to some and of apprehension to others:—'A bold project, executed with the rapidity of the thought which conceived it; immense combinations, resting on all the resources of a vast power; a new plan of colonisation, whose advantages cannot be appreciated; the polluted seat of barbarism and the most ignorant superstition ready to become the brilliant scene of civilisation and the arts; the possessions of our enemies in India threatened; different members of an empire insecurely founded, separating; the commerce of the Levant ready to take a new direction;—these were the vast objects which, for a time, fixed the attention of the world, and procured, in our author's modest account, that general regard which was paid to his former work. It would not be difficult to parody this splendid display, and, with more truth, to give it a very different appearance. We shall rather, however, pursue our author's introduction, and copy his own account of the English translations of his travels in Egypt. After mentioning the forms of each, he adds:

'The last (that in quarto) has, in particular, the strongest claims to the general attention:—its fidelity equals its elegance; and to translate in this manner is to add to the work, and to raise it above the original. The author, with a too delicate modesty, has suppressed his name: but, when I attempted to discover him, I found that this excellent translation was the work of Mr. Monke, major of marines, already known by a Vocabulary of the Terms used in the French and English Sea-Service.'

We have in justice selected this very elegant and warm eulogium; but it was chiefly to express a wish that the English reader may be acquainted with M. Sonnini's present work through the same medium.

Since the time of Tournefort and Dapper, who is described as a geographer giving an account of a country which he has not seen, the state of Greece is greatly changed, and our author has professed to detail what he saw, or what was communicated by authorities on which he could depend. This gives some little variety in the style of the narrative, which it is necessary to explain. M. Sonnini was also two years among these islands (the Archipelago) and some parts of the neighbouring continent, and consequently visited several of them frequently, going and returning without any settled plan: he has not, therefore, followed all these eccentric routes, but collected the total intelligence obtained, and offered it to the reader as the production of one continued tour. The Travels are illustrated by a very beautiful and correct chart, in which the coast of Egypt is laid down from the observations of Andreossy, the author of the memoirs on Lake Menzaleh, &c. It is the first map in which the northern coast of Egypt has been correctly delineated. We shall now proceed to give some account of our author's travels, which cannot fail to be interesting; but as the country is better known, and has been more frequently described, we do not find these volumes so particularly attractive as Sonnini's former work. Much is repeated from prior travellers; and we too often observe the bias we have already hinted at. Though the travels were undertaken by order of the monarch, the remarks and representations are too evidently those of a republican.

M. Sonnini quitted Egypt to go to Cyprus, and engages in some reflexions on the different states of the two countries:—the contrast of the inhabitants is striking, and merits our particular attention.

'The Copt, or the native of Egypt, whose character partakes of the dryness and sharpness of the climate, is short and heavy; his head is large but empty; his figure broad and flat; his com-

plexion a yellow brown; his air mean. His character is gloomy and melancholy; his perfidy is more dangerous, as it is more concentrated. Without any taste for the arts, no exertion of curiosity leads him to seek instruction; sedentary because he possesses no vivacity, he is even careless respecting what surrounds him; idle and dirty, gross and ignorant, severe and superstitious, he has no recollection, not even the slightest trace, of the magnificence of his ancestors.

'What a difference between a race so completely degenerated and that which still inhabits the delightful countries of Greece! Under a serene sky, and in a healthy atmosphere, attempered and impregnated by the mildest exhalations; in a soil which nature decks with flowers, and covers with the verdure of a perpetual spring, or enriches with harvests of every kind, as well as the most delicious fruits; we can only expect, in the inhabitants, gentleness of manners and softness of character. I speak of those who have been successively born there; for the ignorant and harsh usurper can sully with his stupid ferocity the happiest climate and the most smiling pastures; and ages must elapse before their influence can sensibly dulcify the severity of his inclinations.

'The inhabitant of these delightful countries is of an advangeous stature; he carries his head high, his body erect, rather inclining backward than stooping; his demeanour is noble, his manners easy, his walk light; his eyes are full of vivacity, his countenance open, his address agreeable and prepossessing. His dress is elegant and clean; nor is his table less conspicuous in this respect than in what is otherwise beautiful. Active, industrious, and even enterprising, he is capable of executing the most arduous attempts. He speaks with ease, expresses himself with warmth, is acquainted with the language of the passions, and still more astonishes by his natural eloquence; he loves the arts without daring to cultivate them, while under the iron yoke whose weight he so sensibly feels. Dextrous, and even cunning, in commerce, he does not display that frankness which is its basis: and if we still find, in modern Greece, those brilliant qualities which once adorned that country, we must also admit that superstition, the daughter of ignorance and slavery, tarnishes the splendor, and that we can still discover, in the character of the modern Greeks, that inconstancy, that subtlety, that faithlessness—in a word, that artificial manner, which resembles perfidy, of which the ancient Grecians have been accused.'

These characters are drawn with a bold and eloquent pencil; nor are we inclined to dispute the smallest trait: but, if the Egyptians be these stupid clods of the valley, how are they to be enlightened by French refinement? If the Greeks be so

animated and spirited, at the same time so cunning and perfidious, what chance have these new conquerors of retaining their allegiance? Above all, with what pretence can it be contended that one has been derived from the other? The same number of ages have elapsed since the Egyptians might have shone, without the drawback of the heavy yoke of slavery, if their native talents had been the same; nor is there any reason why a race should have degenerated on the fertile banks of the Nile, and been propagated, with even new lustre, among the rocks of Attica. These disquisitions however, if pursued, would lead us too far.

After a few criticisms on M. Pauw's Philosophical Researches respecting the Greeks, with some declamatory philippics against the Turks, concludes the author's general introduction. He next speaks of the trade of the Levant, of its decline, the writings of the Turks, their method of transacting business, &c.—of his embarkation at Alexandria, and his voyage to Cyprus. Of our author's eulogy on this island it is not easy to give an adequate idea; yet barren plains, alternated with a rank luxuriant herbage, the harbour of snakes the most baleful and dangerous, lessen the splendor of the scene. These are, however, the effects of Turkish despotism, and are to fly before the name of a Frenchman and the dominion of France: he seems, nevertheless, to regret that an establishment had not been made on this island, from which Egypt could have been attacked and supported with more advantage; but the plan was laid more deeply; Egypt was only the stepping stone to the north of Persia or the western coasts of the peninsula of India; and whatever errors may be found in the plans of France will, we trust, afford salutary lessons for the conduct of her enemies.

The name of this island is a source of some perplexity to our author. The appellation of Venus (Κυπρις) is drawn *from* it; and Κυπρος may have been derived from kopher (the henna), or from copper, both of which this island is said to have once afforded in large quantities. Various other metals, particularly gold, are supposed to be among its copious productions: indeed there is nothing rich or valuable but what it is said to afford.

'Of all the ancient appellations of Cyprus, that which we wish most to recollect, though strangely contrasted with its present situation, is Makaria, the fortunate island. This was given it from the fertility of its domain, the softness of its climate, the inexpressible beauty of its plains, and the richness of its productions. The imagination of poets gave new charms to this profusion of gifts bestowed by nature: they made it the cradle of the mother of the Loves, and consecrated this pleasing island by the name of Cytherea; they embellished it with all the

charms of the most delightful paintings, with the enchanting scenery of tenderness and pleasure.

'On this theatre, once consecrated to happiness, the arts, and pleasures, barbarians now reign, who have transformed it to the abode of destruction and slavery. Superb edifices, elegant temples, where the most lovely and aimable of goddesses was adored on altars, surrounded by the gentlest and most voluptuous of birds, living emblems of fidelity and love, now cover and deform by their ruins the places of which they were once the ornament and the glory; and the Turks devour even the ruins, which they mutilate, to employ the fragments for the most profane and degrading purposes. Where the Graces reigned an old moslem commands, who frightens them from their seat. Under a destructive government agriculture has ceased to enrich the magnificent plains with its treasures; and the splendor of the isle, once styled fortunate, has passed away.'

The situation of this island is happy: it is in the gulf which terminates the Mediterranean, at no great distance from Egypt and Syria. The range of mountains from west to east, or rather from north-east to south-west, divides it into two regions of different climates, and adapted to different productions. On the whole, we have no reason to deny any of the embellishments which Sonnini so liberally bestows; and, in proper hands, think that it might be still called the happy island. The elevation of the mountains is not sufficient to intercept the clouds, and enable them to become the source of large rivers: yet these are numerous, if not deep; and safe, if not rapid. That the destruction of the forests may render it unusually dry is not improbable; but there is no reason to think their diminution has had a really injurious effect. The various productions of this island we cannot stay even to enumerate; but they are sometimes devoured by swarms of locusts from the coast of Syria, which darken the air; and the residence of the inhabitants is rendered insecure by serpents and a large venomous spider, which Sonnini has drawn and described: we suspect, however, that the danger of its poison is, as usual, exaggerated. Our author, with Olivier, calls it galeodes araneoides.

M. Sonnini embarks for Crete, but contrary winds drive him to the north, and he lands at Rhodes, after having experienced a very dangerous passage. It did not require a national animosity to detect the unskilfulness of the Turks as navigators, nor any acute political refinement to discover the weakness of the French in becoming their instructors. It is of more importance to remark that the coasts of Caramania and the gulf of Macri afford materials for ship-building, and creeks for careening vessels, which may be of the greatest importance at these times,

and indeed at any future period. Were even the Turkish government hostile, weeks might elapse before the alarm could be given, and a longer period before any imagined injury could be resented. On these coasts the current *carries* to the south-west; it is consequently *from* the north-east; and appears to be the eddy which, in a more southern latitude, has a contrary direction. The coasts of Caramania, from Château Rouge (the Isle of Castel Rosso) to the Gulf of Macri, are low, but the rocks are pointed and deeply divided, affording a resistance to the sea which it has not experienced in the gulf.

Rhodes is supposed to have been the production of the sea The interpretation of this fable is, that it has been raised from the depth of the ocean by an earthquake. The error is, however, that of the interpreter: it has only been separated from the continent by the sea; for the direction of the mountains, in the island and the main, is nearly the same; and it must be obvious that the whole of the Archipelago was once a part of the continent, whose southern extremity was Crete. Rhodes, however, is said to have been often afflicted with earthquakes, which it has nevertheless experienced only in common with sea coasts, particularly those adjacent to the main land; for, in more distant islands, these destructive scourges are comparatively much rarer. The famous colossus of Rhodes was overthrown by an earthquake; but it was an error to suppose that this statue was placed with its feet on each side of the harbour. The situation was certainly at some distance; and colossal statues, though of a less bulk, were not uncommon in this island. The climate is charming, and the sun is seldom obscured: for this reason it is styled, by poets, the wife of the sun; and it is distinguished by Horace as *clara* Rhodos. Our author would derive the name from rhodos, a rose, as this flower is still common; but, in all the etymologies of the islands and districts of Greece, if not comparatively modern, one principle is, we think, evident. The appellation is ancient; the application of a later date. If it were once called the Isle of Serpents, it is highly probable, as Bochart supposes, that Rhodes is derived from gesirat-rhod, which has a similar meaning. This island, notwithstanding its serpents and the plague, is still fertile; and its numerous ports and roads make it an excellent spot for building and repairing ships.

'One river only, styled Cadura, a name which it gives to a cape in the vicinity of which is its mouth, waters the internal parts of the island; but numerous springs creep through and fertilise it. Though mountainous, its soil is productive. Beautiful trees, which a greedy but inconsiderate avarice has reduced to a small number, majestically crown the highest hills; and the resin, which the greater number produce, abundantly supplies the wants of the ship-builder. On the coast, the fig, which

gives a large quantity of excellent fruit, the carob, with other useful and agreeable trees, grow with luxuriance. The vine also holds its place; and the wine which it affords, so much esteemed by the ancients on account of its delicacy and perfume, has preserved some of these qualities, and may be still called very excellent, if prepared carefully. The valleys afford rich pasture, and the plains produce a varied harvest. But agriculture would flourish more if more extensively cultivated; if, like every other branch of industry, it did not sink under the shackles and impediments of an unjust and oppressive administration.'

The Grecian partridge (tetrao rufus) is common in Rhodes, but will not bear captivity. The beak of one, confined in a cage, required constant cutting, as its length soon prevented the animal from eating. This effect of captivity is not uncommon in the gallinaceous tribe, as in a state of nature it is constantly struck against the gravel, and its elongation consequently prevented.

M. Sonnini embarks at Rhodes for Stancho, the ancient Cos; and observes, together with some other fishes on the coast of Rhodes, the sea-snake, (muræna helena Linn.) which he describes at some length. We have often met with it on the southern coasts of this kingdom; and it is, notwithstanding its name, in this country an inoffensive animal. Indeed we believe the sea shores furnish no venomous animal; and, in the deep, we only recognise the shark and the sting-ray (the latter of which only wounds when it is attacked) as the enemies of mankind. The sea-snake of the Mediterranean devours bodies already dead; but we do not know that it assaults living ones, except from the cruel punishment of the Roman emperors, who threw living bodies into lakes full of murænæ, which were probably deprived of nourishment for some time previous to this period.

Our author's route was from the north of Rhodes; and he coasted very near the continent to the island Syme, and to Cape Crio, a promontory of Doria, at the extremity of which was the ancient Cnidus, where was a temple of Venus, and a statue of the goddess, the work of Praxiteles. Syme is a little island whose inhabitants still retain the beauty for which Nireus, its king, was celebrated in the time of Homer. They are intrepid seamen, and divers of no mean reputation, as their principal employment is the fishery of sponges. Their manners are simple and uncorrupted; for the heavy hand of tyranny, or the softer corruptions of luxury, have not reached them.

The beauty of the Venus of Cnidus has been celebrated by different authors of antiquity, and by the more sober pen of Pliny. That the Cnidians refused to sell this beautiful statue has been represented as a trait of dignified firmness. It adds more to the lustre of their character that they had a design to

cut through the isthmus of their promontory, and to become an island, for their greater security, and to avoid the dangerous navigation round the cape. They were prevented by the Delphian oracle, undoubtedly influenced by a human power, who could then no longer tyrannise. The spirit and intelligence, however, which dictated the plan merit high commendation.

The shores of Cnidus still boast of their fishes, as in the time of Ovid; and the onions, as well as the garlic, in this warm soil, lose much of their pungency. In the subsequent voyage a flock of cranes and wild ducks were seen hastening to the more tranquil and warmer shores of Egypt; and a polypus leaped, or was thrown, on the deck with such violence as to produce the effect of a spent ball. It was a sepia loligo, and its description follows. Many were seen rising from the sea, like flying fishes; and they were sometimes caught on the coasts with a line.

We cannot follow our author in his 'glance' over the Grecian islands; but have already offered an opinion not greatly differing from his own, that they once formed a part of the continent, without concurring in his supposition that they may formerly have been the Atalantis of Plato, which the description of the Egyptian priests entirely destroys. Of Stancho our author saw little. The report of the plague terrified the crew; and though he paid a short visit to it, with these apprehensions alive, we cannot expect a very particular account. We have the running base of natural fertility, choked by Turkish oppression; and we are told that there are no remains of the temple of Esculapius. We remarked a singular observation of M. Masse, the agent of the consul of Smyrna, which strongly supports one of the ideas of Mr. Webster, in his account of the connexion of epidemics. He predicted that the plague, which had begun, would be general and fatal, because the small-pox, which usually had preceded in the same degree, had very lately made extensive ravages.—Our author remarks that silk is no longer produced in Cos. Indeed it is doubtful if it ever were the production of this island. The Coæ vestes seem to have been of a thinner texture than the ancient silks, and of a different kind, unless it be contended that they were of gauze.

From Stancho M. Sonnini proceeds northward, through the little insulated rocks with which the western shores of the continent are studded; but soon directs his course to the west and south, towards Candia. His nautical remarks are entertaining—indeed genius can enliven the dryest subjects; and the little episode of the Maltese corsair is interesting, from the spirit and intrepidity displayed in the surprise of the Turkish admiral. In the route to Candia our author stops at Stampalie. His account of his own feelings we shall transcribe.

'Were I at liberty to choose an agreeable retreat, which, without being solitary, should neither be troublesome nor noisy; not wholly without external communications, yet such as, occurring but rarely, would be expected with eagerness; a retreat which, under a happy temperature, would be equally exempt from the oppression of heat and the sharpness of cold; where an easy cultivation would require but the slightest labour, and, at the same time, afford a copious supply of a wholesome and varied food; where my eye would wander with rapture over plains enriched with the bounty of a successful agriculture, and adorned with flowers sown only by nature—in a word, where beauty is in a delicious harmony with tenderness and sensibility, my choice would fix on Stampalia, provided it were no longer under the dominion of the Turks, and that no such profaners of the most beautiful countries of the world could ever land there.'

This coast abounds with fishes; but it is a mistake to suppose that the prickles of the weever are poisonous. They are no more so than the spear of the shag-ray, and the pain arises only from the lacerated wound, their spines being barbed in a direction from the point. M. Sonnini confirms, in some measure, Aristotle's remark respecting the channæ, the perca cabrilla of Linnæus. The Grecian naturalist observed that they were all females. Our author dissected several, and found them hermaphrodites, at least they contained the milt as well as the ova.

Amorgos is to the north of Stampalia, and is one of the islands, the account of which is seemingly borrowed from information. It affords, in a large quantity, the archil and the squill, and is composed chiefly of craggy and inaccessible rocks. Nanfio, Santorino, and Christiana, with many smaller islands, are to the south, in the way to Candia. In this part of the Ægean Sea volcanoes are not uncommon. Two islands were raised in the year 1704, even under the eyes of the observers. They are called the white and the black islands; but, though both are evidently volcanic, the last only appeared to throw out fire. The progressive increase is particularly described from the Memoirs of the Missions of the Jesuits in the Levant. This journal is re-published in the first volume of the Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses, (Levant) p. 68. edition of 1780. Santorino, as it possesses no port, is exempted from Turkish tyranny; but the inhabitants have, unfortunately, a fine kind of puozzolane, which they requested the French travellers, Olivier and Brugnière, to conceal; but without success. 'Public interest and personal generosity' induced them to refuse this request of the Greeks; but how M. Sonnini, after the dreadful representations of Turkish tyranny, can call these 'laudable

motives,' we cannot determine. According to such ideas, it must be from *laudable motives* that the traveller is delivered up to the highwayman because his purse is well filled.

Crete is the largest island in the Archipelago, if it properly form a part of the cluster. The direction of its coast and of its mountains is from west to east, very different from those of the other islands, if we except also Cyprus. It is for this reason that we styled it the base of a former continent: but our author thinks it might have once been a part also of Africa,—an idea, in his opinion, supported by the very shallow sea which separates the island from the African coast. Canea, our traveller's first point from which he makes excursions, is at the bottom of a gulf on the northern side of the island, formed, on the west, by Cape Spada, and, on the east, by Cape Melek. These are the effect of rocks branching to the north-east and north-west, from the principal chain, whose highest point is in the centre, the celebrated Ida. The city is not remarkable; yet it is described in glowing colours by Savary, who is said to possess the talent of adorning objects with a brilliancy of which they are not naturally susceptible. To the talents and good disposition of Savary our author pays a willing testimony, though, as in the present instance, his colouring is seldom faithful; and it is remarkable that, in conversation, he was simple, artless, and unornamented—in his general character, highly estimable for his amiable manners and his integrity. Canea is a port of consequence, and was once a considerable one for the export of olive oil, which furnished the soap of the western continent. At present the Candians, taught by some Frenchmen, make, at least a part of it, themselves. The Greeks in this country are treated by the janisaries with great inhumanity; the convents and their inhabitants sink under oppression, though it is admitted by our traveller that they are a mean despicable race; their religion merely formal; their ritual repeated in a manner equally hasty and slovenly; their abstinence, and probably their chastity, apparent only. The situation of the convent of the Trinity is, however, delightful; particularly when compared with that of St. Macarius in Egypt.

'When I contrasted this charming situation with that I some time before experienced in the desert of St. Macarius in Egypt, how exquisite did it appear! There, a climate of fire; the sands in constant motion, and of a burning heat, never refreshed with rain; a vegetation scanty, harsh, and unattracting, displayed nature at her last ebb. A circle of high walls, burning like the soil on which they rest, terrifies the mind and depresses its powers; and, when we examine this horrible prison, we find the same nakedness which reigns without—caves rather than cells, detestable water, bread made from lentils, and every mark of the most dreadful misery. Here, on the contrary, the tempe-

nature is mild; the earth fertile, adorned with her richest productions; the situation exquisite. Every thing charms the senses; every thing is good and delightful, *except* the government, which we wish to forget while we wander over this charming district.'

The winter in Crete is that of the rainy season, moist rather than cold or stormy, and never requiring artificial heat. Yet the neighbouring mountains are covered with snow, and it appeared even so early as the eighteenth of November. When this happens, the north wind, which is sometimes dangerous in the Gulf of Canea, is checked by the land wind, 'the wind of the snow,' and is dangerous no longer. When the most elevated peaks are covered with clouds, the weather is bad at sea, and the wind blows from the north: when these are clear, the weather is moderate at sea. The mountains of Cape Melek are rugged precipices; yet even in these Religion has fixed her seat, and the contemplative monk, as at Montserrat, has his little area only before the door of his cell for air or contemplation. The stone is probably calcareous; for a very extensive cavern is adorned with stalactitical pillars of a most astonishing bulk. The temperature of this cavern is opposite to that of the external air. Another cavern, of much less extent, is described by Pococke.

On the east of the Gulf of Canea is that of Suda, a harbour less exposed to the north winds; and the road thence to Canea is highly pleasant, were it not for the disgusting objects in the route. Those unhappily infected with leprosy are separated from the rest of mankind, as formerly with us, where they had sometimes an independent property and a separate jurisdiction. This, too, is the place of punishment; and objects impaled alive spend their last breath in invectives against Christian passengers. Here, moreover, our author saw a specimen of the ancient dances, and thinks their serious manner a proof of slavery; but he is not aware that the dances of the Greeks were often of this kind, and that they had their serious as well as lively ballets. Their dances were generally a story related by action. The gardens of Canea are delightful. Nature sports with wild luxuriance; and the flowers, scattered in careless clumps, add to the pleasing irregularity of the scene. The fruit-trees are equally independent of art, and these alone lose by this excess of liberty, for grafting greatly meliorates their productions.

Crete was recommended for its wholesome air by Hippocrates; and the Turks seem to acquire additional strength and beauty in this happy island, while the native inhabitants appear to degenerate. The women of each nation feel equally the different effects. The productions of Crete, which our author enumerates at some length, are in general excellent; but the breed of horses and dogs have degenerated. The Cretan dog is the greyhound;

and our author did not meet, in any part of the Turkish dominions, with what we call the Turkish dog, the species without hair. In Crete there is no ferocious animal to alarm the shepherd, though birds of prey are not uncommon; but the wool of the sheep is of a bad quality, which is also attributed to Turkish tyranny. Hogs are fed by the Greeks, notwithstanding Turkish prejudices; and the honey of Candia retains its former excellence. Snakes and some poisonous reptiles infest, though not in great numbers, this delightful spot; and an animal resembling the tarantula, a species of spider, connected with the mason spider of Languedoc, is at least a suspicious animal: it burrows in the earth. Hydrophobia is not unknown in Crete; and their specific is the meloe proscarabæus, our May-chaffer. M. Sonnini describes the modern Candia, and traces the ruins of the ancient Gnossus; but these offer nothing interesting. The celebrated labyrinth is only the remains, in his opinion, of an ancient quarry. We shall resume our account of the second volume of this work at another opportunity, unless anticipated by an English translation.

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ART. IV.—*Mexico Conquistada; Poëma Heroyco, &c.* Madrid.

*Mexico Conquered; an Heroic Poem. By Don Juan de Escoiquiz, Canon of Zaragoza, &c. In* 3 *Volumes.*

NO action, ancient or modern, presents so splendid a subject to the epic poet as the conquest of Mexico; the means are great and surprising, the end of adequate importance; the scene offers whatever is beautiful in painting; the costume is new and striking, the superstition strange and terrible. The character of the hero requires no flattery, no exaggeration, to elevate him. The story has indeed one disadvantage in common with the Æneid—the feelings of the reader are hostile to the conquering cause; but Roman prejudices were interested in the fate of the imagined founder of Rome, and the Catholic cares not upon what ruins the temple of his great goddess is erected. The priests of Tezcalipoca were succeeded by bigots not less barbarous, and his worship by the more atrocious rites of St. Dominic. But these remote consequences are not in our recollection while we behold a handful of Europeans subduing a savage people, and extirpating a bloody religion.

In his preface Don Juan de Escoiquiz defends Cortes and the Spanish nation from the charge of cruelty; he accuses Las Casas of falsehood, and reproaches Raynal and Robertson with the crimes of the French and English buccaneers—a puerile recrimination, which national prejudice cannot excuse, and which even national ignorance cannot credit. Cortes and his followers were cruel because they lived in an age of cruelty.

The poem opens with little art: it relates the situation of Cortes at Tlascala; then formally describes the state of Mexico and the manners of the people. This is as awkward as a print of a Mexican warrior would be, in which his armour and weapons were placed separately beside the figure, instead of forming the costume and the character. A council is held at Mexico, wherein Teutile relates the result of his vain embassy. Guacolando then advises that the strangers be permitted to proceed, and be dismissed in friendship: observing that when they shall have departed, it will be easy to guard against their return, and to punish the rebellious provinces. The king of Tezcuco Cacumazin proposes immediately to attack them in Tlascala. Old Tetlabaca offers a third plan, that the Spaniards should be invited to court, be received with kindness, and at length massacred. This advice, conformably to what all the Spanish historians assert, was adopted. Glauco and Levopia are sent to invite Cortes. The Tlascalans warn him not to pass through Chulula, on which, however, he resolves.

Canto II. Preparations are made in Chulula to destroy the strangers; stones are heaped on the houses and temples, arms prepared, pits dug in the streets and covered over, and pointed stakes planted in them to impale the horses. Before the Spaniards depart, Marina relates her history to Glauco. Her name was Glaura; she was heiress of a kingdom; her parents left her at their death to the care of her uncle Leogano. She had many suitors, of whom Aloro was the favoured; by her uncle's advice she rejected him in public, to prevent any opposition from his rivals, assuring him privately of her love; but Leogano soon murdered the young lover, and sold his niece as a slave among the Tabascans. Marina concludes her narrative with Ulyssean cunning, lamenting a loathed captivity among strangers. The poet now reviews the Spanish army, and their auxiliaries of Zempoalla and Tlascala; Cortes harangues them wisely and humanely, and they march for Chulula.

Canto III. The Chululans send four mean embassadors to invite Cortes, and this folly awakens suspicion in Marina and the leader. They halt without the city for the night. The camp is alarmed by the arrival of Geronimo de Aguilar, the companion of Grijaloa, who, after a long captivity among the Indians, was now enabled to join his countrymen. There is something far more affecting than this surprise, in the account related by an old historian. 'And then he began to speak in the Spanish tongue in this wise—"Masters, are ye Christians?" "Yea," quoth they, "and of the Spanish nation." Then he rejoiced so much that the tears fell from his eyes, and demanded of them what day it was, although he had a Primer wherein he daily prayed. He next besought them earnestly to assist him with their prayers and

thanksgiving to God for his delivery; and kneeling devoutly down upon his knees, holding up his hands, his eyes toward heaven, and his face bathed with tears, he made his humble prayer unto God, giving most hearty thanks that it had pleased him to deliver him out of the power of infidels and infernal creatures, and to place him among Christians and men of his own nation.

The Chululans excuse their embassy by pleading fear of the Tlascalans. These allies are encamped without the walls: the Spaniards and Zempoallans enter the city. Meantime the Mexican general Lauxario prepares for the concerted treason: he consults with the Chululan chiefs, and they determine to have Cortes assassinated. Glauco proposes Marina as a fit agent, and a Chululan woman is employed to gain her: thus Marina discovers the conspiracy, and informs Cortes.

Canto IV. Cortes sends for some of the leaders, and forces a confession from them by torture. They accuse Motezuma, a charge which he affects to disbelieve. He then attacks the Chululans and their Mexican auxiliaries; whom he defeats with great slaughter. This justice done, he proclaims a general pardon. The tidings are carried to Mexico; and Belorano, the high-priest, thus relates the omens which had previously alarmed him, to Motezuma.

" When to the dreadful god of war for aid
Suppliant thou camest, not with erring fear
Told I the tokens of the woe to come:
Yet, tho' the altars trembled, tho' mine eye
Read in the reeking entrails certain ill,
I augured not the suddenness, the shock
Of this day's tidings. Would it ended here!
That with unreasoning and unmotived dread
Vainly I omened worse calamity!
The lake hath in portentous tumult heaved
Its shuddering waters. Lo! the ruined heap
Of yon stone temple, where destroying fire,
Black from the dark abyss of punishment
Up-burst!—Heaven also menaces its wrath.
Nightly we see those strange and dreadful stars
Trail o'er our wretched town their length of fire.
No doubtful warnings these! for thus the gods
Make manifest their anger, thus they threat
Our utter desolation. From the east
Long have their oracles foretold a race,
Like these new foes, to overthrow our rites,
Our empire. Let us timely then confer,
Timely repent the sins that have deserved
Impending wrath; nor let us seek the aid

Of human counsel ere we have appeased
Almighty anger.—Haste we to their fanes!
Haste we, in earnest grief of penitence,
To bathe with blood their altars! Heaven appeased,
Soon then from these abhorred enemies
We work our own deliverance."
' As he spake,
All panic-struck a nobler senator
Came eager in, and at the monarch's feet
Knelt, and began his tidings.—" Sire, I own
The crime of this irreverence; but delay
Had been a breach of duty. Even now
A peasant from a neighbouring islet brings
A bird in figure wonderous, and unlike
All natural shapes, and monstrous in its size,
Who from the clouds descended to his hand.
For this I sought your presence, with the speed
Of terror, fearful of the ill announced."
Awed and disturbed, did Motezuma bid
The man approach: he came, and, with the guise
Of lowly reverence, gave the monster bird,
In form, in plumes, in countenance, unlike
All natural shapes. On his broad front was seen
A mirror glowing with malignant light.
Then onward Motezuma leaned and looked,
And, lo! within the mirror night appeared,—
Dark night,—and thro' its black and moving cloud
The heaven, in intervals of starry light.
So true the actual picture, that in doubt,
As of a dream, the monarch raised his eye,
As if he were not certain of the day.
What then his terror and astonishment,
When, to the mirror stooping, all was changed!
The night was gone—the heavens—the starry orbs,—
An ample plain was there, all desolate,
Trampled by swarming multitudes: they formed
To adverse armies, and, with eager rage,
Mov'd on to meet in war: one from the east,
Where now the sun was climbing up the heaven,
Their weapons glittering, bright their burnish'd arms,
Such as the pictured strangers he had seen
In all the living likeness. He beheld
His people in their foes. They met; the air
Was darken'd; and the darkness, when at length
It opened, gave victorious Spain to view,
The Mexicans in flight, and with their dead
The bloody field o'erstrewn. The monarch's eye
Followed his flying people; he beheld

The lake-surrounded city in her walls
Receive the routed host; he sees on her,
Queen of the waters, on his Mexico
He sees the vengeful globes of fire descend,
And now the flames roll up;—all agony,
He sees the desolation, and, behold!
At once the melancholy scene is fled.'

Canto V. Hell is alarmed. Already had the dæmons excited the envy of Velasquez, stirred up the enmity of the Tabascans and Tlascalans, and, lastly, directed the treason of Chulula—all had failed; and Satan bids the infernal trumpet sound to call the fiends to council.

'The shout of countless armies when they meet
In war, the thunder, the volcano's voice
When with its floods of fire it deluges
The shaken earth, the hiss of hurricanes,
The roar of ocean storms, tho' all their sounds
Rose in one uproar, were but as the breath
Of summer winds to that infernal trump
That pealed o'er all the shuddering realms of hell.
Between Cocytus and black Phlegethon
There spreads a wide waste plain, the council-place,
Horizoned by a vault, thro' whose dark arch
Light never made its way, save only then
When from Mount Calvary the human-god
Descended, the Deliverer, in his power,
And burst the chains of blessed multitudes,
Light is not there, save only that above
The dim pale shadow of a sulphur fire
Waves from the burning soil, and gives to view
Arms broken, battered shields, the relics they
Of that tremendous fight that first with fiends
Peopled the vault of hell, that vengeance-house
Where never enters hope!'

The result of this assembly is, that Satan sends Envy from her cavern in Africa to irritate Velasquez anew. Envy talks with Villafaña, a discontented soldier at Vera-Cruz, and miraculously conveys Juan de Elecho, one of his comrades, to Velasquez; to whom he relates the whole history of the expedition at length. An armament is dispatched against Cortez, under Panfilo de Narvaez. This concludes the seventh canto.

Canto VIII. The poet describes the great temple at Mexico, and the preparations for sacrifice; but draws a veil over the butchery. This done, Motezuma and the chief-priest enter the sanctuary, and address their prayers to Vizlipuzli and Tlaloc. The temple rocks, a fearful and malignant light invests the idol,

his face is vivified, and he speaks. Compelled by the true deity, he confesses that the ruin of Mexico cannot be prevented, but it may be delayed; therefore he advises the emperor to feign friendship and invite the strangers, while he will bring an army of his countrymen to destroy him.—Cortes sets forth from Chulula, and avoids the ambush which had been prepared for him.

Canto IX. The arrival of Cortes at Mexico, and his interview with the emperor.

Canto X. A Zempoallan arrives with news of the defeat and death of Escalante. Cortes, convinced of Motezuma's treachery, resolves to secure his person. This is successfully executed.

Canto XI. Narvaez is becalmed. The devil, alarmed at this, dispatches the furies to assist. A curious machinery is here employed. Time has the command of the winds: They cannot get the keys of the cavern in which the winds are confined without employing Sleep; the furies therefore call upon Care to wake Sleep; Sleep secures Time, they steal his keys, away fly the winds, and Narvaez arrives at the Mexican coast. He rejects all the overtures of Cortes, who is therefore obliged to leave the capital, and try the chance of arms.

Canto XII. The defeat of Narvaez. Meantime Discord assumes the form of Vizlipuzli, and appears to the high-priest, advising him to depose Motezuma, and elect Guatimocin emperor in his stead, under whom the Mexicans are immediately to attack their enemies. Alvarado, with difficulty, resists their fury, and sends for aid to Cortes. On his return to Mexico Cortes meets the fugitive Prince of Tezcuco, and hears his history. This episode is loosely connected with the main story, by developing the villany of Cacumazin and the high-priest. The subsequent events proceed in historical order. The death of Motezuma; the retreat from Mexico; the battle of Otumba. Poetry can bestow no lustre upon actions in themselves so splendid.

Canto XX. An angel descends to heal Cortes, who had been wounded by Cacumazin. Glory conducts him to her temple, and exhibits to him the pictured triumphs of Spain: the siege of Saguntum; Viriatus, Pelayo, the Alonzos and Fernandos, the deliverers of their country; Pizarro, and the spread of Christianity in America. Here end the prophesied victories of Spain. Some little imagination appears in the opening of this vision; but, as usual with all these puerile fictions, not enough to atone for the useless interruption of the story and a dull catalogue of names.

The three following books detail the conspiracy of Villafana, the treason and death of the Tlascalan general Xicotencal, the Lake victory, and the investing Mexico.

Canto XXIV. The Mexicans persist in their defence with

desperate valour. To encourage them, the high-priest sounds the sacred trumpet.

'Now, when, by Silence followed, o'er the world
Night spread her starry robe, the multitudes
Of Mexico towards the war-god's fane
Tumultuous throng; within its ample court
They kneel in awful reverence, and wait
The bloody rites. Before the altar stone
Stands Belorano and the attending priests:
There, by the torches' light, his hand inflicts
The sacrificing strokes, his eye inspects
The quivering entrails, he beholds the signs
That speak auspicious heaven, and he demands
The formidable trumpet. Such the weight
Of that tremendous trumpet, such the size,
Six men with labour and with pain moved on
Beneath its ponderous length. Its voice could peal
Across the waters of the ample lake,
That all the habitants of all the isles
And shores would feel as though a thunder-clap
Had burst above. In times most perilous,
Only when near and utter danger prest,
That trumpet was brought forth; nor in its power
Did Mexico alone with faith confide;
The allies of Spain believed, they held it sure,
That whoso durst abide its hostile voice
On them should desolation and the arm
Almighty fall, if, ere eight days were past,
They fled not from the vengeance. This their fear,
Their rooted creed;—nor could old age recal
A time that ever ancient Mexico
Had bade its terrors aid her.
'Now they rest
Upon the stone of blood that dreadful trump;
And on the war-god Belorano calls
In prayer, then forceful with his voice he fills
The formidable tube, that over heaven
And o'er the lake rolls on its swelling roar.
Hell heard, and mingled with its breath the blast
Of her infernal horn.'

Many of the Indian auxiliaries, terrified by the sacred trumpet, abandon Cortes. In a subsequent action thirty of the Spaniards are taken; Cortes immediately sends to Guatimocin, endeavouring, by promises and threats, to preserve them. The emperor, though himself inclined to spare them, is prevented by the fanaticism of the people and the high-priest, and they are sacrificed

at night, in the sight of their countrymen. This tremendous scene is feebly painted.

Canto XXV. Cortes makes a general attack upon the city; the infernal powers come to assist the Mexicans; they entrap Cortes, who is rescued from captivity by his guardian angel and the troop of Spaniards. The devils are routed, and Cortes every-where successful. The celebrated action of the two Mexicans who threw themselves from the temple, endeavouring to drag Cortes with them, is related in this book.

The last canto contains the flight and capture of Guatimocin, which concludes the war. Cortes addresses the fallen emperor with humanity and generosity, promising him the respect due to his situation. The cruelties which were exercised upon this prince, and the martyrdom which he ultimately suffered in his country's cause, happily for the poet, do not enter into the time of his action.

Literature, like every thing, has its fashion. Romances have been the fashion of one age; emblems of another. Sonnets, and the cold conceits of metaphysical love, all have had their day, have been awhile neglected, and have suddenly revived. After Ariosto and Tasso, the epic wreath became the object of ambition to all the rhymers of the south. Only Camoens and Ercilla have been successful;—the Portuguese far beyond his merit. The Araucana was praised by Cervantes; but, unhappily, the praise of Cervantes was less efficacious than his censure, because it was less discriminate: he has classed the Araucana with the Monserrate and the Austriada—poems deservedly forgotten. The work which we have analysed is free from the defects of Ercilla; but it also wants his beauties. It has not the oddities which provoke a smile in the Viriato, and in the heroics of Lope de Vega, nor the conceits of the Alphonso, nor the sesquipedalian obscurity of Silveyra, nor the languor of Christoval de Mesa, who had learned in a better school. The versification has not the common monotony of the octave stanza, which usually pauses at the first quatrain;—so regularly indeed, that, in many of the old poems, a colon is always placed there. But it has no seeds of immortality, none of those sparks of inextinguishable fire that shine amidst the darkness of these writers. Escoiquiz has never profited by the costume of the Mexicans; his pictures are mere outlines, like the rude paintings of the people whom he describes: he has caught only a few names from a mythology which would have supplied him with abundant images of beauty and of terror. He has indeed avoided the vices by which Spanish poetry was so long contaminated, but he cannot be ranked with the good poets of Spain.

ART. V.—*Mémoires de l'Institut National des Sciences et des Arts.*

*Memoirs of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts. (Continued from Vol. XXXI. p. 498.)*

IN the second volume of this work, dedicated to Mathematics and Physics, the history of this class precedes, as usual, the Memoirs; but it is not the pleasing scientific abridgement, which we have often had occasion to praise, from the pen of Condorcet. It now consists, as we have explained, of 'reports,' and other details, not strictly within the limits of 'Memoirs.' We shall shortly state their object.

I. M. Caussin, professor of Arabic in the National College, has communicated a translation of a fragment of Ibn Junis, supposed to have been long since lost. Golius, to whom we owe the MS. separated an account of three eclipses, which several astronomers have employed in demonstrating the acceleration of the mean motion of the moon. It was for a while doubted whether the times were the result of calculation or observation; but they appear to have been derived from the latter. Twenty-five other eclipses are now added, and contribute to show the astonishing agreement of observation with theory. They support also the theory of La Place, respecting the secular inequality of the apogee and node of the moon. M. Bouvard, an astronomer of no mean reputation, has deduced, from a calculation of these eclipses, assisted with those of Ptolemy, the quantity of the three equations of the motions of the moon, and finds them agree, in a remarkable manner, with the observations of Flamstead and Maskelyne. Various other important corrections and results are drawn from the fragment of the Arabian astronomer, which we cannot at present particularly detail.

II. A report of two Analytical Memoirs of Professor Burmann follow, which it is impossible, also, to abridge. These memoirs appear of importance, and are ably analysed by La Grange and Legendre.

III. In the Physical class there is a report respecting the Invention of a Metallic Thermometer, presented to the Institute by M. Regnier.—A plate of brass is in some measure lengthened, when lying on a table, by a degree of heat. If raised in the middle, so as to form a circle, the apparatus which measures the elongation is affected in proportion to the flexure, or rather to the diminution of the length, in consequence of the flexure, The elongation then, by one degree of heat, is said to be twelve times greater; and by connecting the circular lamina with one in an opposite direction, this increased sensibility is doubled. A very convenient and sensible thermometer is thus formed, capable of measuring great degrees of heat or cold, without danger, easily portable, and not liable to be deranged. We could

have wished, however, that the description had been illustrated by a plate.

'IV. A Report on the Measure of the Meridian of France, and the Results deduced from it, to determine the Bases of the new System of Measures.'—As the new system of weights and measures depends on the quarter of the terrestrial meridian, it is necessary to know the length of this arc. We cannot pursue the calculation in the very abridged form here presented, but must remark that '*the true definitive metre*' is equal to 443.296 lines of the toise of Peru, supposed at the temperature of $16\frac{1}{4}°$. The cubical measure required a more minute and intricate discussion. It appeared that one cubical decimeter of water, reduced to its maximum of density, weighs 0.9992072 parts of the unity, or metre. This is the true kilogram. Comparing this measure with the pile of Charlemagne, it appeared that each unity was equal to 18842.088 poids de marc; and the true kilogram, the unity of weight, is 18827.15 grains, or 2 pounds 5 drachms 35.15 grains. The various standards kept for use are afterwards described.

V. In the class of Chemistry there is a report by MM. Guyton and Darcet on the result of the Experiments of M. Clouet on the different States of Iron, and for the Conversion of Iron into Cast Steel. The principle on which the latter is founded seems to be the decomposition of the carbonic acid, instead of employing carbon; and the result, in the academician's opinion, is equal to the steel of Huntsman or Marshall.

VI. In the same class is a report of Pencils of a new Invention. The plombago, of which our common pencils are made, is not produced in France; and as it is not now to be procured, the artist, M. Conté, has endeavoured to imitate it by a composition which is said to possess all the utility of plombago, with additional advantages. Even their own report, however, evinces the inferiority of this new invention.

VII. In the class of Medicine is a communication by M. Lassus, entitled The Examination of a Woman poisoned by Opium. It acted as a simple stimulus, in the same manner as any other medicine, in an extraordinary dose, producing inflammation and mortification. No morbid alteration was observed in the brain.

VIII. The second article is an enumeration of the Persons received into the Hospital at Luneville affected with Urinary Calculi. This is an institution founded exclusively for calculous patients. In forty years 1629 patients have submitted to the operation of lithotomy—somewhat more than forty annually: of these 1564 were males; only 65 females, about one in 24. The number of deaths was 147, a little more than one in eleven; but this great mortality was, it is said, chiefly conspicuous in the early period: the proportion has in later years diminished. We observe that among the men twenty had exceeded sixty years; of

the women only sixteen had exceeded their fourteenth year, eight only their twenty-sixth, two only their fortieth. The oldest was fifty-four.

IX. The third article is a remarkable instance of Tumefaction in the Bones. The quantity of earthy matter deposited by the urine would lead us to suspect, that, though the surface was greater, their weight was less. This appears, however, to have been by no means the case; for the man's actual weight was augmented by more than sixty pounds.

X. In the Veterinary department there are some remarks on the Vertigo of Horses, in answer to an inquiry, Whether the disease be epizoötic and contagious? The members properly distinguish these two epithets, and show that they are by no means synonymous. The disease in question was evidently from too great fatigue, joined with food scarcely alimentary.

The distribution of prizes; the titles of the memoirs which are thought worthy of being printed among those of the *Savans Etrangers*; machines, inventions, and preparations, approved by the class; a list of works presented to the class; the life of Pelletier by Lassas, and of Bayen by the same author; together with a supplement to the article of astronomy, giving an account of a second comet discovered in 1799, being the ninety-first, the elements of whose orbits are known; conclude the History, and introduce us to the Memoirs.

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I. Memoir, by M. Cuvier, on the Species of Elephants either existing or fossile. This forms the first paper in this department of the volume; and we have been greatly pleased with it. M. Cuvier is a lively and intelligent naturalist, who has entertained and instructed us by his preliminary remarks. Of elephants now existing there are certainly, according to his account, two distinct species, characterised by their different manners, the shape of the head, and the form of the molares. We shall transcribe our author's definition of each.

'1. Elephas Capensis (Africana), fronte convexâ, lamellis molarium rhomboidalibus.

'2. Elephas Indicus (Asiatica), fronte plano concavâ, lamellis molarium, arcuatis undatis.'

The names, however, must not be taken with strictness; for on the eastern side of Africa, adjacent to the Mozambic channel, the species seems to be the Asiatic: at the Cape, and on the west, it is the African. We shall add only a short account of the fossile remains supposed to belong to the elephant, as we shall give in the present Appendix an account of M. Cuvier's introduction to and abstract of his more extensive inquiries on the subject.

The Asiatic remains found in Russia and Siberia, supposed by Pallas, Gmelin, &c. to be the bones of the elephant, are usually those of another animal, whose species is no longer seen.

The inhabitants of those countries believe that it still exists, but imagine that it burrows under the earth. The species, in our author's opinion, is probably lost; and it is thus characterised—'E. Mammonteus maxillâ obtusiore lamellis molarium tenuibus rectis.'

Another animal, probably lost also, is that whose fossilised bones are found on the banks of the Ohio, and in other parts of the American continent. E. Americanus molaribus multicuspidibus, lamellis post detritionem quadrilobatis. M. Daubenton, though the thigh bone resembled that of the elephant, thought the teeth were like those of the hippopotamus, and of course imagined that the animal might have partaken of each species: yet, in the specimen he examined, the teeth were worn; in apparently younger individuals they were very different.

'If it be asked why we find so many remains of unknown animals, while there are scarcely any which appertain to those species with which we are acquainted, the probability will at once appear, that they belonged to a world more ancient than our's, to beings destroyed by some revolutions of this globe—beings whose place those of the present day have filled, and which will some day be destroyed to be re-placed by different ones.'

'II. Observations on a Disease of Trees, and particularly of the Ulmus Campestris L. analogous to an Ulcer, by M. Vauquelin.'—Should the vegetable œconomy be so well understood as to lead to a system of pathology and vegetable therapeutics, as is highly probable, our author's inquiries would hold a distinguished place in the former class. The ulcers of vegetables begin *under* the bark. The acrid humours are, as it were, pushed on the circulating system, and, when deposited, form a true caries. It is a disease chiefly of old trees, and such as grow in a rank moist soil; sometimes spontaneously cured, forming on the surface of the trunk an excrescence, which M. Vauquelin styles a vegetable exostosis. The wood never, however, recovers its former properties, but becomes more or less brown and brittle than in the other parts, or than the wood of healthy trees. The fluids thus effused are transparent, and have a salt acrid taste, are slightly coloured, depositing on the borders of the wound a kind of soft sanies, indissoluble in water; sometimes brown and black, wholly soluble in water. In the first instance the bark becomes white, like lime-stone, of an alkaline taste, effervescing with acids, friable, and losing its organisation: it is apparently composed of rhomboidal and prismatic crystallisations. The coloured fluid communicates a shining black-like varnish, and is sometimes so copious as to furnish some species of stalactites. These have also an alkaline taste, and,

as they are soluble in water, occur only in the curvatures, where they are protected from moisture. In the white matter the salt is carbonate of pot-ash, mixed with sulphat of pot-ash, a little carbonate of lime, with a very small proportion (0.004) of magnesia. In the black substance the salt is carbonate of pot-ash, mixed with a mucous matter, containing a peculiar acid. How these salts are formed and separated will be the object of future inquiries. M. Vauquelin thinks that it must be at the expence of a considerable quantity of the wood, if estimated by the proportion of alkali from the diseased part, compared with that which the wood naturally contains; but this is to draw a consequence from a state of health, which will not apply to diseases.

'III. Experiments on the Detonations generated by Percussion, by MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.'—The authors, in this memoir, enumerate the different facts on this subject, already well known, and explain them from the oxygen separated by percussion. They do not, however, take into the account the light produced; the detonations from a slight percussion, in consequence of light alone; or the trivial degree of heat which accompanies the fulmination.

'IV. Memoir on the Motion which may be observed in the Spinal Marrow. By M. Portal.'—This, as well as the preceding, looks like an abortive effort to fill the pages of an annual volume. The swelling of the brain, alternating with inspiration, is well known; and a similar swelling, from the same cause, is observable in the upper part of the medulla oblongata. To enumerate the exploded theories on this subject is to betray the want of more important matter.

'V. Memoir on the Eclipses of the Stars, particularly that of Aldebaran, observed October 21, 1793, by M. Churruca, at Porto Rico; with the Consequences, by Jerome Lalande.'—It is impossible to follow the minute inquiries of this respectable veteran in the astronomical science; but we shall attempt to offer a very short account of the results of his labours. In his former enumeration of the eclipses of the sun and stars, he had omitted those of Aldebaran, as the observations disagreed, and were of course incorrect. As he received new ones of a better kind, they furnished some important considerations. The latitude of the moon, at the moment of its true conjunction, is the only method of distinguishing the good observations from the bad. The eclipse, of which our author now treats, was seen by day in Europe, and by night in America; and, of course, is one of the most important phænomena of this kind: it is employed in this place as an example of the different calculations to which it has given occasion. The observations of different astronomers, at their respective observatories, are then adduced, and the variation of meridians calculated with great precision. 'After

many attempts,' says M. Lalande, 'I determined to take for the conjunction at Paris 18ʰ 6′ 21″, with the latitude 23′. The difference of meridians was then as follows: Gotha 23′ 30″, Marseilles 12′ 9″, Berlin 44′ 4″, Figueras 2′ 34″, Porto Rico 4 33′ 24″, Ferrol 42′ 20″, Cadiz 34′ 20″.'

'VI. Memoir on the Properties of pure Barytes, and its Analogies with Strontian. By MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.'—The principal facts in this memoir have been long known. To obtain the barytes quite pure it is joined with the nitrous acid, which is decomposed by heat; but even then it contains about 0.08 of carbonate of barytes. In its pure state it is almost wholly of an alkaline nature, very soluble in water, very readily crystallisable, giving a copious precipitate with carbonic acid and alkaline carbonates, which it decomposes. Its readiness to crystallise distinguishes barytes and strontian from all the other earths.

The solution of barytes is highly useful in detecting the presence of many other acids; such as the sulphuric acid, which furnishes with it a salt even insoluble with an excess of the acid; the oxalic, which precipitates the barytes, but re-dissolves it, and crystallises so as to separate and ascertain the proportion of barytes mixed with lime, whose oxalate is insoluble in the excess of its acid; the tartarous, which forms a soluble salt; the citric, whose combination with this earth is insoluble, but becomes again soluble with an excess of acid, but does not crystallise like the oxalate of barytes. It is useful also in ascertaining whether alkalies be pure, and in this respect superior to lime.

From the properties of this earth, when very pure, it seems greatly to resemble strontian and Witherite. Indeed our author thinks these three to be the same substance with different proportions of carbon.

'VII. Report of a Memoir of M. Martin relative to the Culture of Spice-Trees in French Guiana.'—Various collections of spice-trees were sent from the Isle of France, at different times, to Guiana, particularly the clove-tree, the canella, and the nutmeg-tree, which for a time flourished, though, we believe, at present they are greatly neglected. From Guiana also M. Martin sent home various specimens of wood adapted to ship-building, seeds, dried plants, and other natural productions, which seem to have been lost in their passage, for they never reached France.

'VIII. Memoir on the Introduction of several useful Plants in the French Colonies of America, particularly of Guiana, and on the Success or Failure of their Cultivation.'—The importations were rich and valuable. In 1772 the caryophyllus aromaticus, laurus cinnamomum, mangifera Indica, eugenia jambos, artocarpus integrifolius, and scytalia longa, were conveyed there; and they obtained also the miristica officinalis, with the cocoa-tree of the Maldives. To these, in 1784, were

added scytalia lit-chi, pandamus odoratus, sagus palma-pinus, mimosa lebbek, Lawsonia tinctoria; in 1785, the purple-tree of Para, viz. talinum oleraceum, an erigeroides, ananas microcarpa, iatropha trifoliata, and a supposed theobroma, the macrocarpa; in 1787, the tubiscus rosa-sinensis, punica nana, eugenia expetita, and a species of bamboo; in 1788, with some other plants formerly imported, calamus rotang, cocos nucifera, spondias Cytherea, a Chinese quince-tree, dryandra oleifera, eugenia uniflora, terminalia catappa, artocarpus incisus, and some Batavian sugar-canes. Many of these have failed, from ignorance, from avarice, and a spirit of monopoly; many more, we suspect, since the publication of the volume before us, from the unsettled state of the colony. To us the events are at present uninteresting, especially as the date of the paper is a remote one, viz. 1797. This colony had certainly not then obtained the *true* pepper-tree.

'IX. Memoir on the Fracture of the Sternum. By M. Sabatier.'—In this instructive memoir are two cases of a fracture of this bone; one of the patients recovered with little assistance; but the other, whose injury was much more violent, died. Even in the latter, however, there was no affection observable in the heart or pericardium, nor any effusion of blood, as might be expected from the rupture of the mammary arteries. A singular case of fractured ribs is mentioned, where a piece of one of the ribs was separated in the middle, but the patient recovered. An instance of a ruptured sternum, from what may be styled a counter-fissure, deserves notice. The sternum was broken in consequence of a violent fall on the back, from the sudden contraction of the muscles.

We shall conclude our account of this volume in another Appendix, as the whole would make our article too long.

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We resume our analyses of the memoirs devoted to the class of Moral and Political Sciences, yet unnoticed in the first volume.

'IX. On the Faculty of Thinking. By M. Destutt (Tracy), Associate Member.'

The observations advanced in this paper prove clearly that the author has studied his subject with profound attention. He is often, however, inconclusive in his arguments; and if he had condensed his memoir into half its present formidable length, which extends to not less than one hundred and sixty-eight quarto pages, he would have been better understood, and more completely remembered. It is divided into three parts. In the first M. Destutt examines into the manner by which we acquire a knowledge of our own and of surrounding bodies. In the second he treats of the particular faculties which compose the general faculty of thinking; and, in the third, he illustrates the mode by which the action of the elementary faculties of thinking

has contributed to the present progress of human reason; and the difficulty we experience in attending to the operations of our thoughts.

It is well known to have been the doctrine of Mr. Locke that man obtains a knowledge of his own existence by intuition, of surrounding bodies by sensation, and of the deity by demonstration.

The sagacious Condillac, in his celebrated Treatise on Sensations, resolved the whole, or at least the two former, into the evidence of the external senses alone; while our author, at the same time that he professes profound respect for both the English and French philosophers, deviates equally from the doctrines of each of them, and endeavours to establish a system of his own, by which man is supposed to acquire a knowledge of all events and existences by the mere faculty of motion.

'Since nothing,' says he, 'exists with regard to us, but by the ideas we have of such existences, since our ideas constitute the whole of our being, and are that very being itself, an examination of the manner by which we perceive and combine them can alone teach us in what our real knowledge consists, towards what it is extended, what are its limits, and what the methods we ought to follow in investigating truths of every kind.'

As our ideas are of so much consequence to us upon the system here proposed, it would have been but kind in M. Destutt to have informed us definitively what he understood by such a term; for there is no expression in the whole science of metaphysics which is more vague and indefinite, or which, from the age of Plato to that of Mr. Hume, has admitted of a greater variety of interpretations, and consequently been the source of an ampler multitude of misconceptions and errors. The position, however, here advanced concerning ideas is not new to our own country; and we have had a multiplicity of schools, of both materialists and immaterialists, who, in its present indeterminate sense, could very readily have subscribed to it *ex animo*.

We pass over this want of precision, however, which occurs in the introduction, and advance to the author's system itself, which is developed, and certainly with no small degree of ingenuity, in the first part of his treatise; premising that in M. Condillac, and perhaps among the ancient Epicureans, from whom M. Destutt might easily have traced it, the sense of touch has been too generally, or at least too exclusively, referred to.

'I move,' says M. Destutt, 'and I am sensible of it. I receive from myself no impression, no modification, but the sense of motion. Whatever I meet with, in relation to myself, is nonentity, is nothing. I persevere in the same sense of motion,

and I perceive myself resisted—opposed. That which opposes this resistance to me I denominate an *obstacle*—a *body*. If this body or obstacle did not exist, I should be able to persevere in my motion. Hence, from that which does not prevent me from moving, and from that which does, from *nothing*, and from *body*, I derive the general idea of *space*. I call it *void* if I find *nothing*, and *full* if I meet with *bodies*. It is therefore impossible to know whether space be a substance or a quality; for it is not, strictly speaking, either the one or the other: it is an abstract idea, compounded of those of body and non-entity considered with relation to my sense of motion. If any one inquire of me whether space exist beyond the bounds of the universe, I reply, that beyond the bounds of the *whole* there exists *nothing*, and that if I were there I should certainly not be incommoded in moving.'

Our author modestly doubts whether this reply may satisfy the world; but he thinks it, nevertheless, more truly philosophical than the most ingenious subtleties, and asserts that questions of this kind should only be answered in this manner. We cannot avoid observing that here again the word *space* is given without a definition, and yet in a sense obviously different from any in which it has heretofore been used, either by those who have contended for a plenum or a vacuum; and that it would be an easy matter for a Cartesian, or any other plenist, to refute the foregoing reply, by asserting that if there were *nothing* beyond, our author would not only be incommoded in his power to move, but be rendered totally incapable of moving at all; for how could he, in such a case, derive a support for his feet or air for his lungs? Man cannot possibly, by his constitution, move into *nothing*; and the conclusion is equally false and unphilosophical, therefore, that he requires a knowledge of *space* by advancing into *nothing* or *non-entity*.

Our author proceeds to assert that, in like manner, he derives his primary knowledge of *place*; the *idea* of which, says he, is that of a portion of space, full or void, determined by its connexions with other portions of space. In a mode not very dissimilar he acquires the idea of the *surface* and *figure* of bodies; and hence that of *extent* in general, which he defines to be, with respect to ourselves, the permanent representation of the quantity of motion necessary to pass by it. From the same general source of knowledge he deduces the idea of *duration*.

'I will suppose myself limited,' says he, 'to the smell of perfumes, and devoid of motion. I inhale the odour of a pink, and afterwards that of a rose: I again inhale the odour of a pink, and I remember its smell; that is to say, I perceive it is the same self that has been a pink, and then a rose, and then a pink again: I say, therefore, that this self has been successively modified, has existed, has *continued*. From phænomena of this

kind I deduce the abstract and general idea of *duration*. But without *mobility* I have no mode of measuring my duration. Where my mobility has taught me the existence of bodies, and induced me to attend to their movements as well as to my own, I compare the duration of my personal self with the movement which strikes me. The two apparent motions of the sun around the earth are the most remarkable, the most repeated, the most constant. I take them for my scale, and I divide them into equal parts by artificial and correspondent motions of other bodies, as of sand or the index of a watch. Time is, therefore, a portion of duration definitively measured.'

Here assuredly, however, our author's system completely fails him: for, in the first place, he admits that the idea of duration, so far from being necessarily dependent, like every other acquired idea, upon motion, may be, and is, in the instance he has adduced, obtained without it; and next, he has by no means proved that even personal mobility is essential to the measure of duration. The man at rest may certainly observe the apparent motions of the sun, as also of most other bodies, quite as accurately as he who is moving; he will be as able to divide the intermediate period into distinct parts, and hence to obtain as definite an idea of *time*.

Having dwelt thus largely upon the plan and casual inaccuracies of the first section, we shall notice, as briefly as possible, the objects of the two remaining divisions, which repose upon the first as their basis. The intention of the second part is to prove, that, if man were deprived of the faculty of self-motion, the faculties of judging and willing would never exist; and that, if the faculty of memory could by any means be produced, it would be without any possibility of distinguishing immediate consciousness from its actual and simultaneous sensation; whence the faculty of thinking would be totally and for ever reduced to that of perceiving without fruit or progress.

In this section we have an attempt made to define what the author means by the term *idea*, and with which the work ought to have opened: but the attempt is altogether a feeble and unsuccessful one. He discovers that the *science of thinking*, upon which he is writing, is at present wholly devoid of a name; and after as much difficulty of determination as our old friend Mr. Shandy was ever involved in upon a similar subject, he at length resolves to christen it by that of *idéology*, or the *science of ideas*. Thoughts and ideas therefore, in the apprehension of our author, are terms altogether synonymous: but we are told immediately afterwards that 'the word idea is truly synonymous with that of *perception*;' so that *thoughts* and *perceptions* are now become synonymous also. We are next informed that the term *image* is as applicable to the one as the other: so that images of *thought*, images of *perception*,

and images of *ideas*, are all one and the same thing. And the author now satisfies himself that he has communicated to his reader a most accurate conception of what he means by the term *idea!!*

We prefer the third part of this memoir, however, to either of the former. It is devoted to the history of man, from his solitary or savage state to his aggregation and the arrangement of civil society. But having already passed through the same subject in our examination of three successive memoirs of M. Cabanis, published in the volume before us, and noticed in our last Appendix, we shall not again enter into the discussion. We agree with our author that every language which has hitherto been employed by mankind has been very far from exhibiting any thing like perfection; and that none of them have been formed by any individual effort, by any pre-conceived plan, or any basis of general acceptation. Our own countryman, Mr. Whiter, has indeed lately endeavoured to establish the contrary; but the efforts he has made are a complete refutation of his own system.

'X. On the Meaning of the Phrase 'Analysis of Sensations.' By M. Laromiguière.'

'XI. Extract from a Memoir "on the Meaning of the Word Idea." By the Same.'

These papers are both short, and ought to be united in our consideration of them, from their close relation to each other. And, whether purposely designed as such or not, they form a complete contrast to the verbose memoir which immediately precedes them, as well in perspicuity of language as in lumination of conception. They appear to have been written in consequence of an immediate application from the legislature to the National Institute, who certainly could not have fixed upon a philosopher more competent to the task than M. Laromiguière. We cannot follow him through the lucid order of the first memoir at the length we could wish, but shall only observe that he primarily elucidates the meaning of the term *analysis*, and afterwards that of *sensations*. Every art or science has its *principles*—a certain basis upon which it is founded, and which may be denominated its alphabet. It is not possible to pay any degree of attention to such an art or science without perceiving the existence of such principles or alphabet. From a knowledge of such *principles* we advance to a knowledge of the *system* which is founded upon them; 'being hereby placed, as it were, at the point of the first link of a chain which embraces a vast number of facts; subjects to one common law, phænomena the most remote, or even, in appearance, the most opposite; assimilates and identifies mediums which seem to possess no mutual analogy; creates, from a multitude of scattered and isolated parts, a regular and harmonious whole; and, admirable contrivance! contri-

butes to the riches of the understanding by reducing the number of its ideas.' But there are systems of which the limited powers of man cannot embrace the whole; such, first of all, amidst a vast multiplicity, is that of the universe. Yet the attentive investigator may, nevertheless, acquire a knowledge of some minute part of such complicated machinery, although he cannot comprehend its totality; and in this species of labour, which may indeed often be extended to the entire system, consists the operation of *analysis*. For the abridgement of language, therefore, instead of saying, observes M. Laromiguière, that the mind decomposes a whole into its separate parts to form to itself an idea of each, that it compares these parts together to discover their connexion, and hence to re-ascend to their origin, to their principle, we say, in one word, that the mind *analyses*.

In his illustration of the term *sensations* he advances from dead and inanimate matter, the fossile and the mineral, to the vegetable world,—to matter in a state of organisation and vitality, but totally devoid of senses and consequent sensations: and hence again to man, who is not only impressed upon by surrounding objects, but is *sensible* of such impressions, or, in other words, who is capable of retaining them. If his organs did not retain such impressions, if they did not inform him of their presence, if, like the surface of a mirror, they reflected the rays without preserving the impress, nature would act upon man to no purpose,—man would never re-act upon nature or enter into connexion with her. But, says he, in direct opposition to the foregoing writer, if it were true that all our prejudices, all our errors, all our passions, all our *ideas*, all our reason, were only *sensations*—if it were true that we were nothing more than *sensations ourselves*—that, in one word, the whole universe were a mere phænomenon reulting from our sensibility—then a complete analysis of sensations would be the analysis of a table tremendous by its immensity; and to undertake it would be the work of a man miscounting his powers, who, after having condemned all who might attempt to embrace in their conceptions the universality of existences, should have the inconclusion and ill-address to imitate them by presenting the *system of the universe* under the title of an *analysis of sensations*. By the senses, continues our author, man receives the impressions of objects; he compares them, he judges of them, he pursues them, he avoids them; he preserves their remembrance when absent, he draws permanent ideas of them. Excited by pleasure or pain, he studies his own faculties; he meditates upon himself, upon the relations he bears to other beings, and particularly to his fellows; he learns the art of knowing and of regulating himself. Attracted by the charms of truth which he has met with, and the beauty of virtue which has penetrated into

his heart, he dares to elevate himself to the fountain of the beautiful and the good, and presses forwards to the sublime idea of the divinity.

In the paper which follows, M. Laromiguière is, we think, less precise; and it is curious to observe, that although almost every school of metaphysicians, excepting perhaps the *reflective* of Scotland, whose doctrines, if not perplexed, are, in our opinion, too superficial, have been forward to adopt the term *idea*, almost every one has failed of giving an adequate definition of it, even as to the sense in which such school istelf has meant to employ it. In the paper before us, instead of a definition, we have a long description; and the author is more happy in pointing out the errors and indecisions of his predecessors than in offering any unobjectionable explanation of his own. He is more negative than positive, and general rather than particular. The most forcible elucidation we have met with is as follows: 'An idea is a distinct sentiment, a marked and unmixed sensation.' But what kind of notition are we to acquire by so vague an interpretation as this? Still, however, in opposition to M. Destutt, we must *not*, he tells us, confound *idea* with *thought*, for that would be to confound it with all the operations of the understanding and of the will; we must *not* regard it as a real existence independently of our sensations; we must *not* conceive it as a substantive mean between existences and their qualities; we must *not* say, with Malbranche, that ideas are the absolute essence of the divinity which exhibits itself to mankind.

'XII. Observations on the Existence of some Islands but little known, situated in that Part of the great Ocean which lies between Japan and California. By M. Buache.'

The existence of these questionable islands is contended for from the testimony of several navigators of the seventeenth century, and particularly Witsen and Matthew Quart, combined with hints communicated by several of our best circumnavigators of the present times, particularly Cooke, Clarke, and La Pérouse. There may be such for aught we know to the contrary; but we doubt whether they will be ever ascertained by the vague and hypothetic instructions of the present speculator. A chart of these questionable islands is appended; but future researches must determine as to its accuracy.

'XIII. On the Spirit of Faction, considered with Relation to its Influence on different Governments. By M. Baudin (des Ardennes).'

'XIV. On Clubs, and their Relations to social Organisation. By the Same.'

In the first of these memoirs M. Baudin divides political faction into three classes, defining it an association, which, for the interest of one or several, endeavours to subvert the established government, whether by substituting another in its stead,

whether by merely modifying it, whether by obtaining its translation into new hands, without changing its nature or varying its form. It is not impossible, however, he adds, to conceive of a fourth branch of faction which may endeavour to destroy every thing without organising any thing, whose object is neither amelioration nor change, but absolute annihilation of all government. The three former kinds are the fruit of a criminal ambition, whether more or less enlightened—the latter can only spring from a spirit of spoliation (*brigandage*) and brutal ignorance. The elder Brutus, as well as Brutus and Cassius, William Tell, Washington, and several others, are excluded, however, in the prosecution of this paper, from the charge of having abetted factions; because, in their oppositions to existing governments, they none of them made their own interests, or that of their colleagues, their leading object. The prevailing character of all factions is therefore egotism or immorality, to which our author adds a third lineament, that of their being essentially in a minority. To this last mark we can by no means, however, accede; for—not to advert to the majority which was in the first instance obtained in his own country by the infamous Robespierre, and of which nothing but his own increase of villanies and contempt of all law and order eventually deprived him—the faction of Cromwell among ourselves is a full proof of the error of the proposition: since, whatever may have been the integrity of the great body of his adherents, there can be no doubt that he himself, and many of his colleagues, were guided by a spirit of faction alone; while, nevertheless, those adherents comprised a vast majority of the people, equally influenced by the protestations and disguise of their extraordinary leader, and the unpardonable culpability of the rejected monarch. We must not, however, admit, says our author, that every minority constitutes a faction, or is proved to be so by its want of success. The conduct of Cato, whose very name is the synonym of virtue, and the plains of Pharsalia, forbid such a construction. He concludes with observing, that under a monarchy factions are only formidable to the authority of the reigning prince; and that, incapable of operating or even wishing for the liberty of the people, they produce all those evils which arise from the turmoils of the state. While in a republic, on the contrary, their attack is immediately directed against the great mass of the citizens, since they hazard that general liberty which is the patrimony of every one. A republic ought therefore, he tells us, as it has far greater means of activity, to be far more anxious to repress so tremendous a calamity.

The memoir on clubs is expressly written to demonstrate their mischief as political institutions. The abbé Barruel himself cannot have more aversion to them: and yet, very differently from the abbé or his coadjutor, professor Robison, M. Baudin

does not trace their existence in his own country from the efforts of mystical illuminates or atheistical philosophists, but directly, and, in our opinion, far more justly,—from the inclination which his countrymen have shown ever since the commencement of the American war to aping Great-Britain in every respect: in the first instance, in all that relates to political liberty, and afterwards in every other fashion whatever. 'There was a time,' he observes, 'when, in spite of the facility of communication, in spite of the reciprocal interests of the two nations to engage in daily interchanges of their respective riches and discoveries, we were better acquainted with the productions and history of the people of another hemisphere than with the manners, the language, and the political institutions of our nearest neighbours. Since the propagation of the principles of liberty during the American war, and in consequence of the part actually taken in that contest by the nation at large, we have made them ample amends, however, by a kind of *anglomania*, which extends to all objects, whether serious or frivolous, and which is pushed to such an extent as to become a species of national malady. We have nothing now but English gardens, English breakfasts, English carriages, English boots, English jockeys, English horse-races. Our diseases are even deduced from the same quarter; and we are overloaded with vapours, nervous disorders, and consumptions.' The political *clubs* of France, for the name of which they are indebted to us, are, he contends, and enters into an elaborate history of them in proof hereof, deduced from the same source. Those who have been seduced into a belief that the abbé Barruel or professor Robison has developed the true origin of these institutions, and of the consequent fall of the monarchical government, should peruse this memoir as a document of opposite evidence and reasoning: the conclusion of both classifications of writers is, however, the same; and the abbé and the professor must equally agree with M. Baudin in the following observations:

'Can we conceive any thing more tremendous than associations so largely disseminated over the surface of the republic as to elude all calculation of their numbers or their power? Could their zeal be concentrated and converge to one common focus, what could be more violent than the universal and instantaneous flame they might produce? If they acted, on the contrary, without dependence and mutual relation, what shock and discordance of opinions, or, rather, what passions would be opposed to one another! The north would applaud with transport the project which the south would with equal fury repel. To prevent such a conflict, to reconcile such oppositions, the true medium is to concentrate, in one national and individual

representation, deputies from every part of the territory. They ought not to carry with them any specific instruction; but they should evince, in their common deliberations, a knowledge of the wish, as of the wants, of their constituents.'

XV Arithmetical Proofs of the Necessity of encouraging Agriculture, and of abandoning Embargoes on Corn to the Freedom of Commerce. By M. Antoine Diannyère, Associate-Member.'

This is a very sensible paper, and as applicable to Great-Britain as to France. The data to which it appeals are unquestionable; and we would willingly insert the whole of its tables if we could afford space. The result with respect to both countries, in a period of forty years, from 1714 to 1754, is, that in every instance in which government has attempted to interfere with the free circulation, from an apprehended or a real scarcity of corn, it has always produced a price and a mortality exceeding those which have occurred in other periods or in other countries labouring under the same average of difficulty, and in which no such interference had been manifested. At the present moment this memoir is highly valuable, therefore, to the political œconomists of our own country, as well as applicable to the times upon which we are fallen.

'XVI. Reflexions extracted from a Work of Citizen Gregoire, on the Means of consummating Political Sciences.'

This memoir, as it is the last, is also the least, of the whole volume in every respect; and surely nothing but a dearth, and a dreadful dearth too, of materials of real merit could have induced the department of Moral and Political Sciences to hash up and reprint these hackneyed and, at the same time, absurd sentiments of citizen Gregoire. Cosmopolitanism, such as might satisfy the wildest devotee of the *Theodor von der guten Rath*, and qualify the writer for a *sta bene* under Weishaupt himself; the doctrine, that there can be no morality but what is strictly republican; and many others of the same family and of equal value, are here re-edited in all their glory. 'Every conqueror,' we are told, 'becomes insufferably despicable when placed by the side of the man who first introduced the *potatoe* into Europe! And why are we compelled to remain ignorant of the names of those benefactors of humanity who invented the saw, the plane, the scales, the weather-cock, the arch, and applied yeast to bread; while the names of Alexander, of Tarquin, and of so many other oppressors, and those who are akin to them, are suffered to soil our memoirs?' We apprehend that citizen Gregoire himself would find a detailed history of such men insufferably tedious, if committed to paper, notwithstanding the utility of their inventions, and his exorbitant veneration of their characters.

The volume concludes with an analysis of certain memoirs read by M. J. de Sales, and condensed by himself. They consist of seven in number; but we perceive nothing in any of them that need detain us by an individual investigation. We will just mention that one of them consists of an *éloge* on the facetious La Fontaine, who was born in 1621, and died in 1696; and another on the virtuous Bailly, who was born in 1736, and whose unfortunate end must be within the memory of all our readers.

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We return to the department of Literature and Polite Arts.

'XXII. Memoir on the Public Works of the Romans, compared with those of the Moderns. By M. Antoine Mongez.' The stupendous edifices of ancient Rome, and the immense and almost incredible expence with which they appear to have been constructed, have often excited the attention of the traveller abroad as well as of the traveller in his own closet. M. Mongez has endeavoured to account for the means by which the Romans were enabled to erect many of their most wonderful boasts of architecture, from what quarters they derived the quantity of labour necessary for such undertakings, and how cheaply they were really elevated in comparison with the common idea of the expence they are supposed to have occurred. He proves, from the Roman writers themselves, that they were accustomed to exact, by way of tribute, a great portion of the materials destined to their public buildings from the nations who were in subjection to them; that they employed, in extracting such materials from the bowels of the earth, in transporting them as well as in their preparation, immense bodies of slaves, or prisoners taken in war, of malefactors, and of other persons specifically condemned to such kinds of labour; that the Roman legions themselves were occasionally engaged upon such public undertakings; and that their emperors not unfrequently contributed a part of their patrimony towards their completion, the more wealthy and ambitious of their conquerors a portion of their spoils, and their proconsuls the wealth which they pillaged from their respective provinces or their allies.

To this history of their ways and means succeed some observations on their mode of preparing bricks, tiles, artificial stones, and earthen vases, and an enumeration of several substances, as coal, cinders, and oily matters; all which it might be useful to re-introduce in the process of compounding or employing them. The whole memoir is ingenious, and deserves the attention of our architects and mechanics.

'XXIII. Researches into the Colours of the Ancients, and the Arts with which they are connected. By M. Ameilhon.'

It is often difficult to determine with precision on the direct

tint to which a Latin or a Greek term refers, and the present investigation is likely therefore to be a very valuable one.—We say *is likely*, for hitherto we have but the mere commencement of what promises to be a very long and a very interesting dissertation, and which must extend to many memoirs, dispersed through future volumes. It comprises in reality an examination into all the different arts among the ancients in which colours were employed, together with the various modes of using them. Of these our author commences with the art of dyeing; and so minute is he in his researches, that the present memoir advances no farther in this investigation than to the construction and operations of their fulling-mills, their inventions for scouring wool, and for cleaning and blanching stuffs. Upon a mere sub-section of so extensive a disquisition, we cannot be expected to be very copious in our strictures.—So far as he has advanced, M. Ameilhon has discovered a very creditable knowledge of his subject; he evinces, in our opinion, a fuller acquaintance with classical literature than any one of his colleagues who has yet fallen under our notice; and when he has made a little farther progress we shall return to him with much pleasure.

'XXIV. Dissertation on the true Portrait of Alexander the Great. By M. le Blond.'

Notwithstanding the celebrity of the character of this extraordinary man, both as a soldier and a patron of science; notwithstanding the certain propagation of his portraiture by a statuary, a painter, and a medalist, appointed by himself for the purpose; notwithstanding the great number of these last that are known to have been struck upon different metals, and the avidity with which they were hunted for many centuries posterior to his death, as talismans against every calamity; it is a question among antiquaries, in the present day, whether we have any authentic medal exhibiting the features of this renowned warrior. The memoir before us is devoted to the consideration of this question. M. le Blond investigates all the known medals referable to him, whether in gold, silver, or bronze; and his conclusion is, that, of the first description, all of them exhibit the portrait, not of Alexander, but of Minerva, and never were intended for the former; that as to the silver medals, they uniformly present the head of a young man covered with a lion's skin; while those of bronze present a similar head, sometimes covered in the same manner, sometimes naked, sometimes surrounded with a diadem, and sometimes with a helmet; and that, of both the latter classes, each of which has a better pretension to authenticity than the golden medals, those representing him with the coverture of a lion's skin have the fairest pretensions to being correct and genuine. His conjectures are principally deduced from the prior observations of M. Pellerin,

and an individual text of Constantinus Porphyrogenetus. The reasoning is plausible, but we can by no means consider the question as decided; and still doubt, with Winkelmann, whether the medal with a lion's skin about the head may not be a representation of Hercules.

'XXV. Observations on the Arrangement and Classification of the Books of a Library. By M. A. G. Camus.'

'XXVII. Addendum to the above Observations. By the Same.'

We remove the latter of these papers a small degree out of its order, in consequence of its connexion with the former.

The French republic, by the plunder of foreign states, the spoliation of the royal palaces, as well as the domains of many literary emigrants, and by a few private bequests, is now in possession of a vast mass of valuable books; and the object of the present memoir is to point out the best mode of arranging them into a national library. The system generally pursued divides the various volumes of a library into five grand classes—theology, jurisprudence, both canonical and civil, sciences and arts, polite letters, and history. A neat and elegant arrangement is certainly of the utmost consequence, to prevent unnecessary loss of time in the consultation of any book that may be demanded; and although our author does not seem to be altogether satisfied either with this common mode of classification, or with several others to which he adverts, we cannot find that his own system offers any great advantage beyond that which is more generally adhered to, or is entitled to any specific enumeration.

'XXVI. Memoir on the Completion of the Louvre, and on the Enlargement of the National Museum of Painting and Sculpture, and on the Necessity of speedily founding a special School of the Arts. By M. Peyre.'

The riches of the French republic in many of the best paintings, models, and cabinets of curiosities, from the causes we have just stated, are now become so considerable as to render highly expedient the establishment of a national gallery and a national school. To complete the former, with a magnificence equal to the occasion, M. Peyre suggests a re-union of the Louvre with the Tuilleries on the side of the street Honore; and, with respect to the second, he proposes that a national school should be founded in such museum, devoted to the three branches of painting, sculpture, and architecture; that it should be superintended by a certain number of professors, and be open to the world at large. We here close our analysis of the first volume, and shall enter upon the second in our next Appendix.

ART. VI.—*Sur les Espéces de Quadrupédes dont on a trouvé les Ossemens dans l'Intérieur de la Terre. Addressé aux Savans et aux Amateurs de Science. By G. Cuvier, Membre de l'Institut.* Paris. 1801.

*On the Species of Quadrupeds whose Bones are found in the Interior of the Earth. Addressed to the Learned and the Lovers of Science. By G. Cuvier, Member of the Institute.* 8vo.

THIS is, in reality, only the programma of M. Cuvier's large work, which will be equally interesting and extensive. He has more than 300 drawings, and fifty plates are already engraven; but the work will probably not be published for two years. We shall therefore give the abstract of it, so far as it is found in the present introduction; yet, from the extent of our author's correspondence, we have reason to believe that it may be much enlarged by farther communications.

The confusion in which the animal and vegetable remains are found when in a fossile state seems to show that some violent and reiterated convulsion must have produced the destruction of bodies which were formerly alive. Marine exuviæ are often interposed between others purely terrestrial; the productions of the north are only observable as fossils in the south, and the ruins of fishes over those of land animals. The very late discoveries of Faujas de St. Fond make no part of this memoir; but we may just mention his finding traces of numerous vegetables under basaltic pillars; and we wait, with some anxiety, for his particular account, as their state may perhaps decide the disputed question respecting the origin of basalts.

From this confusion, Woodward, Buffon, and others, have formed splendid, but delusive, theories respecting the formation and destruction of the world. Youth is the season of admiration; and the early age of philosophy partakes of those feelings which are excited by singular events. At a more mature period the mind examines and compares. This has been lately the effort of Pallas, Daubenton, Dolomieu, and Kirwan; and judicious induction has succeeded to fanciful reveries. The idea that the remains of the inhabitants of the torrid zone are regularly found in a higher latitude, which has occasioned the supposition of a world gradually cooled, of a change in the angle of the earth's axis, the reverie of an eternal spring, &c. appears to have existed only in the imagination. There is no such regularity:—but a farther inquiry relating to fossile bones may be interesting in subordinate views.

'As the principal question is how far the catastrophe which preceded the formation of our continents extended, it is necessary to inquire if the species which then existed have been en-

tirely destroyed, only modified in their forms, or transported from one climate to another. It is evident that this inquiry can be more easily pursued in the class mammalia than in any other, as it is the least numerous. We know, very nearly, every species; and if there be any with which we are not acquainted, they are probably small and unimportant; for it is almost impossible that the larger animals can have escaped the examination of travellers or the inquiries of naturalists. We possess also the skeletons of those already known; and can determine, with sufficient certainty, whether any fossile bone resembles or differs from a corresponding one of a species which yet exists. We have not this advantage with shells or fishes. Naturalists are far from being acquainted with the whole race; and when we find the remains of a species hitherto unobserved, we may suppose that it still exists in distant seas or inaccessible deeps.'

There are, however, many difficulties in the way of the inquiry. Bones have been overlooked or considered as human; comparative anatomy has been much neglected; and there are few places in Europe where there are collections of skeletons which can be employed to ascertain the identity or dissimilarity of any given fossil. M. Cuvier, by the extent of his correspondence and the number of skeletons preserved in the museum, as well as from his knowledge of comparative anatomy, is well enabled to overcome these difficulties; and he carries his inquiries so far as to ascertain even the manner of living of the lost species. His mode of investigating these points are explained at some length.

We find very numerous remains of animals very different from those which now exist; for the apparent rarity was the consequence only of inattention; nor is any country without such fossile bones. The Spaniards have brought from Paraguay entire skeletons. The animals to which they appertain are different from those we see at present, because they have been long preserved. In the present state of the continent no earthy or stony strata are formed, so that bones soon decay from the access of the air, or from the impression of water, in grounds permeated by this fluid. The fossile remains sometimes occur in strata truly stony, and often in rocks of a very early date; not merely in clefts or caverns, as M. de Luc supposes, where they have been very recently covered with stalactitical crystallizations. In general, also, the more ancient the rocks the more different are the bones from those of the animals at present existing. The generality of the difference also is truly astonishing; 'for none of the fossile bones, in such a state of preservation as will admit of comparison, resemble those of living animals.' This assertion is truly bold; for M. Cuvier must exclude the supposed human (fossile) bones mentioned by Gouen and Spa-

lanzani; those which Esper thinks belong to the white bear of Franconia; and the elephant described by Pallas. The last point has, however, been already discussed. He admits, indeed, that a given bone may wholly resemble that of a living being, as the teeth of ruminant animals are the same in every age; but, with this single exception, he contends for the absolute dissimilitude of the fossile bones hitherto discovered to those of animals at present alive.

By his own diligence, and the assistance of his friends, M. Cuvier thinks he has ascertained twenty-three species at present unknown, but whose existence in remote ages is ascertained by their remains. The most early discovery was that species whose husks afford the fossile ivory, so common in Siberia. It was known that it surpassed the Indian elephant in size; and our author has already shown that the species is very different. Its remains are found in every part of Europe and Asia, even to the Frozen Ocean. A skeleton, nearly entire, was discovered last year at Gotha, on the spot where another had been found the beginning of the past century. A valley near Ganstadt, in Suabia, furnished eight skeletons; and a very considerable portion was detected lately near the village of Argentil, two leagues from Paris.

The second species is that to which the English and Americans have transferred the name of mammoth—an appellation which probably belongs to the first. It is as large as the first; but its immense teeth, armed with points, give it a very different character. The bones of this species are very numerous in one spot on the banks of the Ohio, but have been found also in Siberia, in Lesser Tartary, and in Italy.

The third species, now lost, is that of the rhinoceros with the lengthened head, which our author has shown, in another memoir, to have been very different from the four or five species of rhinoceros now known. It is common in Siberia and Germany. An entire animal, with its skin and flesh, was found buried in the frozen banks of the Vilhovi, a river that falls into the Lena; a circumstance which, in our author's opinion, 'proves that the revolution which has destroyed the animals he speaks of was extremely sudden.' We may add also, if this argument be allowed, that it must also have been extensive, since its effects were obvious in Siberia and Germany; but we think the conclusion is not very fairly drawn.

The fourth species is the megatherium, noticed in Dr. Shaw's very excellent work, which resembles the sloth. The whole skeleton was found at Paraguay, and is preserved in the king of Spain's museum. Some portions have been discovered in South America; for the megalonyx, described by Mr. Jefferson, does not seem very different.

The fifth species is the great bear, whose bones are so com-

mon in Germany, and which Camper and Rosenmuller have determined to be different from those of living bears. The sixth is another unknown species of bear, whose bones are detected in the same caverns. The seventh a carnivorous animal, between the wolf and hyæna; the remains from the same spot.

The eighth species is an animal resembling the elk, whose bones are so common in Ireland, and the points of whose horns are fourteen feet distant. The ninth comprehends the fossile tortoises, of which there seem to be many species. The tenth is the vast lizard, known by the name of the crocodile, which has so much engaged the attention of Camper, and of which Faujas de St. Fond has given a complete history, as well as of the spot where it was discovered. The eleventh is the singular reptile incrusted in the schistus in the neighbourhood of Aichstedt, described by Collini, from a complete skeleton preserved in the cabinet of Manheim. It was small, and appeared to possess the faculty of flying like the little lizard called the dragon. The twelfth is another animal, either reptile or cetaceous, described also by Collini.

For these we are indebted to other observers; but our author claims the merit of being the discoverer of the eleven species which follow.—First, the animal whose teeth are impregnated with copper, and furnish the occidental Turkey stones. Many are found at Simore in Languedoc; one was discovered at Trevoux. Dombey brought some teeth, apparently belonging to an animal of the same species, from Peru: several of these were impregnated with native silver. Second, a species of tapir, whose bones are found in the sides of the Black Mountain. It is of the size of the living tapir, which is known to be an animal of South America, and differs only in the form of the dentes molares. Third, another species of tapir, called the gigantic, from its size nearly equalling that of an elephant, but not differing in form from the existing animal. The bones are traced near Comminge, and in the neighbourhood of Vienne in Dauphiny. Fourth, a species of hippopotamus not larger than a hog, resembling the living hippopotamus. It occurred in a siliceous grit; but the country which produced it is doubtful. 5th—10th, the gypsum beds of Paris have furnished six fossile species of a genus hitherto unknown, seemingly intermediate between the rhinoceros and tapir: they differ from each other in size and the number of toes. The size varies from that of the horse to the rabbit. Eleventh, a species of crocodile, whose bones were discovered near Honfleur, resembling the cavial, or the crocodile of the Ganges, yet easily distinguishable by striking characters.

Besides these, some bones are mentioned resembling those of living animals, which may, however, differ in other respects,

The first are bones of the tyger genus, not differing from the analogous ones of the living tygers or lions. Second, the head of a hyæna, which Collini considers as that of a phoca, which, however, varies in no respect from the head of a common hyæna. Third, the bones from the rocks of Dalmatia, perfectly resembling those of a deer, but the horns may be different.

M. Cuvier mentions some other fossile bones, but not sufficiently complete to ascertain whether the species to which they may belong are the same with or different from those of living species; viz. the bones of the great ruminating animals from Verona and Gibraltar; the bones of the gnawing animals from the same rock; the bones of the cetaceous animals of the genus delphinus or cachalot, found by Deborde d'Aureau in the neighbourhood of Dax, supposed to belong to the crocodile; the bones of ruminating animals found near Orléans, some of which resemble those of the sheep; with several others not examined, or too much mutilated to admit of any conclusion. Other bones which resemble those of living animals have been found in peat bogs, but can scarcely be styled fossile.

'This remarkable quantity has been collected and ascertained in not more than two years, and by a man who has only possessed his own zeal in favour of science, and the assistance of some scientific friends. We may judge, then, what the attention of naturalists, excited by these specimens, and assisted by time, so necessary to the perfection of all our knowledge, will probably accomplish. If so many lost species have been established in so few months, how many may we not suppose are still in existence, though concealed.—How much will our ideas of the revolutions of the globe be aggrandised by the circumstances yet unknown! animals who once lived on the surface of the earth buried under whole mountains! seas leaving between them and the present surface, traces of their successive passages! an earth never subjected to the power of man, and of which there only remain bones partly decomposed!—How were these beings of a prior æra destroyed? how were their successors formed?—Metaphysics are as much embarrassed as philosophy; and this new production of organised beings is perhaps more inconceivable than any other part of the phænomenon.'

We may just anounce, though no part of the present work, that some indubitable ornitholites, viz. fossile remains of birds, after much controversy and many deceptions or mistakes, have lately been ascertained and arranged.

ART. VII.—*Les Scandinaves, Poëme, traduit du Swéo-Gothique; suivi d'Observations sur les Mœurs et la Religion des anciens Peuples de l'Europe barbare. Par Joseph Chérade Montbron.* Paris. 1801.

*The Scandinavians, a Poem, translated from the Swedo-Gothic; with Observations on the Manners and Religion of the ancient Nations of Barbarian Europe. By J. C. Montbron.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 12*s. sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

IN his preface, the author informs us that this poem in prose is translated from a Latin version, by Resenius, of an old poem in the Swedo-Gothic or Swedish language. As M. Montbron evinces some degree of learning in his notes, we were inclined to credit this assertion, though, amidst many works of ancient northern lore, no such book had fallen into our hands; but, upon looking into the life of Resenius, drawn up by himself, and containing a catalogue of his works, we could discover no such publication. On proceeding to the poem itself, we were sufficiently convinced that the pretended translator is in fact the author.

Regarding him therefore in this light, we may justly compliment his imagination and his abilities, but cannot with equal justice applaud his knowledge of the northern nations and their antiquities. To instance, in a radical fault, M. Montbron confounds the Vandals of antiquity, a German nation who spoke the Gothic language, with the Wends, a Slavonic people, using quite a different speech; nor does he seem aware that recent English publications have evinced the variety of these northern tongues.

The supposed epoch of his poem must also be dated before the introduction of Christianity into the northern regions; yet, p. 7, &c. he speaks of towers and porticoes of marble as decorating a palace in Scandinavia! Even a trifling skill in northern antiquities might have taught him that wood alone was then used; and he would be at a loss, even now, to find perhaps one marble pillar either in Denmark or in Sweden.

The names of his persons are also frequently ill chosen; and the whole seems an imitation of Ossian, with a mixture of Scandinavian mythology.

As a specimen, we shall translate a small portion of the first book. The palace of Sueno is suddenly attacked by the Vandals, (Wends) and he is constrained to a secret retreat.

'Scarcely had he quitted the palace, when the doors, half broken, were forced with a hideous noise. The clamours of a wild joy resounded without the palace, and the cries of despair echoed beneath its trembling roofs. A murderous instinct inflamed the strangers; they rushed towards the asylum where the king reposed: the faithful minister, to favour the retreat of

the hero, clothed himself in the regal mantle, and assumed the diadem. He darted into the passage, armed with a long javelin; determined, if he could not delude the fury of these barbarians, at least to retard their progress.

'When they beheld him, whether from respect or from terror, the assailants immediately stopped.—Who dares intercept our blows? exclaimed the sable Odislas—Strike! he said, and rushed towards the soldiers;—but scarcely had he reached the threshold, when Adelus pierced him with his lance, withdrew it, and then plunged it, yet reeking, in the side of Arcamor. The two Vandals, oppressed by the weight of their arms, fell, and their heads were crushed against the marble. The hero repulsed them; and their bodies, which he pressed with a firm foot, served him as a barrier against his enemies. While other victims were yet sacrificed by him, their mingled blood ran at his very feet. The fiery Ethelmar rushed among them—Infamous ravisher! he exclaimed, Beneath my sabre shall fall thy head, unworthy of the crown! He said, and parried the lance of Adelus; but the steel deceiving his unskilful hand, entered beneath the heart, and struck to his entrails a deadly cold, and afterwards pierced the buckler of Othrys.

'In vain the hero endeavoured to withdraw it: suddenly his ears were assailed by an increasing noise, like the roaring of the angry sea when its waves dash against the shores. A new cohort appears, and, by its impetuous onset, obliges the former to abandon the passage.

'Brave warrior! neither dost thou see the death with which thou art menaced, nor the glory which awaits thee: Rescue thy master—in that is thy safety, in that is thy glory. Thou defendest thy life only to protect his. The steel escaped from the hands of the expiring Ethelmar—Adelus seized it—almost surrounded with enemies, he sprang back, and, supporting himself against a pillar, warded off a thousand blows, and dealt around a thousand deaths. For him is all the danger; for his assassins all the terror:—he seemed a god descended to protect us;—it is Thor hurling his vindictive thunder, or, rather, it is Odin the destroyer.

'Who suddenly awakens their courage and their cruelty? A spectacle greatly worthy of pity. Alpais, the daughter of Sueno, flies trembling and distracted. The dangers of her father call her; the tumult of arms directs her. The surrounding darkness, feebly dispersed by the uncertain light of the conflagration, deceives her sight; she fancies she recognises her father by the marks of his power, and yet more by the tokens of his courage. She penetrates the crowd of soldiers; she throws herself between them and the hero, and forms a buckler for him of her palpitating bosom.—Barbarians! she exclaims, Here sacrifice the daughter in the sight of her sire—here sacrifice the

father on the bleeding body of his child! or rather exhaust on me all your rage, and respect his life!

'Neither her tears, her sighs, her accents of despair, nor her trembling hands which she raised before every sword, nothing could touch the unfeeling hearts of these tigers. One of them seized her flowing hair, and forcibly dragged her to the ground. Another availed himself of the moment, and threw at the warrior a long and ponderous javelin. The weapon pierced Adelus, and quivered in his side. Deep and fatal wound! The blood burst on the deplorable Alpais. What an agonising cry! what desperate attempts! The hero would yet strike, but the blow he aimed overpowered him; he fell upon his knees, his body trembled, and his pale face reclined upon his generous bosom. The unmanly Othrys, who a moment before dared not cast his eyes upon him, is eager to conclude this disgraceful victory, and, coolly choosing his aim, plunged his sword to the hilt in the bosom of Adelus. The steel reached his entrails, which it tears with a mortal pain and the chill rigours of death.'

Another extract shall be taken from the conclusion of the poem, which consists of fifteen books.

'The two kings disdained to give the decisive blows to the fallen Vandals; a more dear and powerful interest recalled them; they flew back to the place where Alpais yet breathed. The women were standing in silence round her; long black veils descended from their severe countenances, and their hands traced characters of magic on the leaves of various plants. Son of Haldan! exclaimed one of them, Despair consigns thy wife to the tomb. This irremediable poison envenoms a wound which else was not mortal.

'Buried in despair, as in the darkness of death, the prince neither expressed grief nor regret. Adelstan, who in the tumult of war had vainly sought destruction, Adelstan, at this sight, felt its arrows penetrate even to his heart. He fell upon his knees before the couch of Alpais; he bathed it with tears, and exclaimed:—O daughter of my king! Adelstan is impatient to follow thee! Our duties are fulfilled. In the grave there are no chains, and our free souls then——Hold! said she, and respect the sacred ties. It is no longer Alpais that you see; it is the wife of the son of Haldan. Already perhaps too guilty, she ought no longer to hear thee, but seek to forget thee.—The monarch cast at the son of Adelus a look burning with wrath.—Detested rival, who comest hither to inflame my grief, hence with thy insolent regrets! fly or tremble!—I know neither to fly nor tremble: Insult not a despairing heart, said the son of Adelus, grasping his sword.—Harald instantly drew his own. Rage and jealousy overspread their countenances with an horrid

paleness, and deadly lightnings darted from their eyes. Both trembling with rage, detesting life, and eager for death, they rushed on each other. Adelstan opposed his buckler to the sword which was ready to pierce his heart: the golden eagle, with which it was impressed, caught the monarch's eye: seised with a virtuous dread, he threw away his sword, and remained motionless.—It is he! exclaimed the king, It is my deliverer, and I was about——wretch that I am! Guilt follows all my steps! Guilty in my wrath, and yet more so in my kindness, my hand is doomed to make me a parricide. —Thou may'st forget that I have saved thy life even when most I sought it. Defend thyself: death calls for a victim.—It is well! strike! for the ills which I have done, and the evils which I feel, all, all, overpower me. Strike! or leave me. But what do I say? Ah stay!—Alas! I can neither obey the dictates of gratitude, nor can I bear the thoughts of being ungrateful. Stop! If thou depart, she dies. O despair! O struggles, which my heart cannot sustain! Great gods! Lost to my love, and living for another husband, or lost to the world entirely and for ever! —Ah! perish rather Harald and his fatal passion! Disposers of our fate, grant that she may live, and that her heart may acquit me towards too generous a rival! Heaven and earth hear me! I restore a hand which the heart never yet bestowed—I abjure a miserable marriage*: she is free! But whither does a deceitful hope mislead me? Deaf to my cries, and more pitiless than myself, death perhaps——Subdue, O daughter of kings! subdue the horror with which my presence inspires thee—I am no longer thy husband!—A gleam of pity appeared on the countenance of Alpais, on her countenance which a feeble ray of hope seemed to animate. O prince! she exclaimed, I have deserved thy hatred: I cannot receive thy favours. Oh that the tomb were my asylum! A willing victim—my death alone can extinguish your discord, and disarm the gods!—She said, and raised to heaven a supplicating look.

'While the two kings and the son of Adelus watched around her couch, the warriors went to recover, in the bosom of repose, the fatigues of so great a day.

'Morning dispelled the night, and tumults succeeded the silence of the fields. Alpais awoke less melancholy and less languid. Some roses, yet faint, seemed to tinge the paleness of her complexion.—So, disengaged from a weight of tempests, nature smiles at the first glance of spring. Hope relumined every heart.

'Meanwhile Perislas, a stranger to ambition as well as to hatred, abandons the projects of his brother: too feeble to defend himself, he no longer aspires to vengeance. He sends a herald to offer peace to the monarchs, and to demand an inter-

* Repudiation and plurality of wives were then very common

view, in order to fix the conditions. They depart with regret. Their looks are often turned towards the tent of Alpais, for their hearts have not abandoned her.—The throne of my fathers awaits and reclaims me, said Perislas. Ready to quit these shores, we wish to carry nothing but our arms, and the spoils of my unfortunate brother.—The kings assent to his demand, and engage their faith by solemn vows. Theodolph and Sygtrius, each followed by a thousand warriors, were to conduct the Vandals to the shore, and watch the accomplishment of the treaty.

'The hour of sleep approached: full of impatience, the hero of Skone and the son of Haldan arrived at the tent of Alpais.—She will yet live! exclaimed the women who surrounded her. Hela in vain expects her prey.—A thousand tumultuous sentiments agitate the heart of the monarch. Sometimes generosity yielded to his regret, and sometimes repentance stifled it. He arose; sat down; he walked; returned. His tongue denies its office; but the changes of his countenance betray a painful contention. Thus, ere the thunder rolls, the clouds are agitated, they cross, they commingle, and veil the splendor of heaven: the eye beholds the lightning illume their dark skirts, but the attentive ear catches no sound.

'Soft sleep had not closed the eyes of the son of Haldan, and the dawn of day found him buried in his grief. Full of sad inquietude, the hero of Skone and the lover of Alpais presaged new discords, and dreaded new misfortunes.—It is done, said Harald, and I go far from you—far, far from what was once my wife, to accomplish a dreadful sacrifice. May you sometimes think of me without hatred, and may I forget you!—Hero, worthy of thy glory, exclaimed Sueno, may the remembrance of thy kindness calm thy grief. Every day will we bless thee!—He spoke: The monarch, followed by a splendid guard, and journeying before his army, has already turned his steps towards the mountains of Norway.

'The same sun, O Lunden! beheld our victorious standards wave upon thy walls! O days of happiness and glory! Adelstan and Alpais, may the songs of marriage seem pleasing to your ears! My lyre was not mute; its tones animated the feast; and the voice of the Scalde celebrated the exploits which his arm shared.

'My master, surrounded with solemn pomp, yet more elevated by the general hilarity, ascends his throne, and shines with placid majesty. Like the lofty cedar, that in the midst of spring still preserves on its branches the glittering hoar-frost of tempestuous winter, the monarch, in the midst of prosperity, preserved the same countenance that he had opposed to misfortune.'

We shall not attempt to follow the author through the nu-

merous incidents of fifteen long books, and a plot which would require a considerable detail, and only serve to forestal the satisfaction of the reader. The poem we may safely recommend to perusal, as possessing many marks of genius and imagination; and a translation would probably be an acceptable present to the public.

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ART. VIII.—*Systême de Connoisances Chymique, et de leurs Applications aux Phénomenès de la Nature et de l'Art. Par A. F. Fourcroy.* Paris.

*A System of Chemical Discoveries, with their Application to the Phænomena of Nature and Art. By A. F. Fourcroy.* 10 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 5 *Vols.* 4*to.*

WE had designed, and in some measure prepared, an extensive account of this work, which is the most complete collection of chemical facts that has been yet offered to the world; but, as we have reason to expect, in a short time, a judicious translation of these volumes, we shall contract our design, and curtail the extent of our article. To collect all that has been published, in a science so rapidly increasing, is not an easy task; and it is not very disgraceful to have been guilty of some omissions. We have noticed a considerable one in the neglect of Mr. Hatchett's Experiments on Bones and Shells. These and his later labours Mr. Nicholson will doubtless add when he presents his translation to the public: a few others of less import his own extensive acquaintance with the science will suggest. Those who are acquainted with M. Fourcroy's former works will expect a great degree of perspicuity and precision, without that compressed systematic form which conveys much in a small compass. His is the language of detail and of conversation. Those who run may read; but, at the same time, few who read will misunderstand. His introduction, however, is a more compact and a more laboured performance; and his History of Chemistry affords a bold and comprehensive outline. M. Fourcroy says pointedly, what we have often suggested, that to suppose the science existed because some of its arts were known is absurd. In this view a cook is a chemist, and a butcher an anatomist, but neither deserve the title; though the Israelites and the Egyptians had little better claim to either the former or the latter science.

Our author's work is divided into eight sections. The first contains the bases of chemical science, the general doctrines, and the introduction; the second, the simple and undecompounded bodies; the third, burnt bodies, oxyds, or acids; fourth, salifiable bases, earthy or alkaline; fifth, acids united to salifiable bases, or earthy and alkaline salts; sixth, metals in particular; seventh and eighth, vegetable and animal organic compounds. The whole of this arrangement is artificial. We have mentioned,

in one of our articles in the Retrospect, that a more natural method may now be employed; for the science has at length advanced so far, that the lacunæ, which alone form the distinctions in an artificial method, are fully supplied. We may begin, for instance, with the more rare or the more dense bodies. The former are preferable, as the least compounded. Light and caloric lead us to the gases; these to their fluids. The doctrines premised lead to two sorts of fluidity, by fire and water: the first introduces combustible, the second saline, bodies; of course comprehending their principal ingredients, acids and alkalies. The step from alkalies to earths, particularly the calcareous, is very easy; and the barytes or the strontian are very nearly allied to arsenic and some of the more imperfect metals. The general doctrines respecting carbon and azote, taught under the head of each in their gaseous form, are the foundation of the vegetable and animal compounds. Each is so peculiar, that, as in the system before us, it must be treated apart. This view of the subject might be farther expanded. It is enough, however, to offer a hint in the present place.

The subjects of the general doctrines we need not enlarge on. The section is extremely full and copious; nor can we recollect a single topic of importance that is not introduced. The simple and undecompounded bodies are light, caloric, oxygen, azote, hydrogen, carbon, phosphorus, sulphur, diamond, and metals. Metals are placed here as simple bodies; but, on account of their use and importance, are treated of separately. Atmospheric air, which is a compound, is included in this section, a confusion arising from the imperfection of the author's plan; and it will be observed that some of these different bodies are known to be compounds, or other forms of undecompounded bodies.

The third section is on burnt bodies, oxyds, and acids. The author first considers combustion, and this is a concise recapitulation of the former data. The oxyds are either permanent or not permanent, that is, they are liable to become acid by an excess of the acidifying principle. Those of the first kind may, however, be oxydated in different proportions. Water is styled the hydrogenous oxyd. M. Fourcroy treats of all its varied properties, forms, and uses; and considers its relation to the different simple bodies in their order. The characteristic feature of our author's plan strikes us thus early; that is, the properties of the successive bodies are examined from their relation to those which have preceded, and whose properties have already been explained.

The third article treats of the different metallic oxyds, which are only placed here to complete the catalogue. Their properties are more particularly explained, either in the section of metals or of vegetable and animal compounds. The next subject is that of acids; and M. Fourcroy explains how their acidity is owing to their oxygenation. He distinguishes those whose radicals are

simple combustibles, before treated of; and points out the substances which admit of larger portions of the acidifying principle, classing them according to the attraction of their radicals for oxygen. He speaks first of the carbonic acid, describing the different natural states of this gas, as well as its properties and uses. He next, for the same reason, treats of the phosphoric acid in its different states; of its existence in natural bodies, its preparation, properties, and use. The vitriolic and nitrous acids share an equal degree of the author's attention; and he shortly notices the metallic acids, reserving a fuller account for another section. The muriatic, the fluoric, and the boracic acids, are placed in a separate section, in consequence of their radicals being little known.

In the fourth section the author points out six different earths, perfectly distinct from each other, and divides them into dry and alkaline earths. Flint, alumine, zircone, and glacine, are of the first kind; magnesia and lime of the second. The order is that of their attraction for acids. The nature and properties of each are described; but the account of the zircone is very meagre, as little attention has been paid to it. M. Fourcroy speaks also of the new earth, discovered by Gadolin, the yttria. The article respecting lime is very interesting and extensive. We have seen nothing of this kind more satisfactory; and, from the extent of the information and the arrangement, it reflects the highest credit on the author.

M. Fourcroy considers barytes and strontian as alkalies. The order in which they are treated is, as usual, that of their attraction for acids, viz. barytes, pot-ash, soda, strontian, and ammoniac. In the article of barytes, the author examines, with particular attention, the hydro-sulphur, the hydrogenated sulphur, and the sulphur of barytes; 2. the extinction of barytes in air, more *quick* than that of lime; 3. the solution of barytes in water, and its crystallisation; 4. its combination with earths; 5. its strong attraction for acids; and 6. its poisonous effects in the animal economy. Strontian is examined with equal care; and M. Vauquelin's new process to obtain it pure, as well as barytes, is added.

The last article of this section is long and interesting. As he could not class these bodies chemically, on account of our imperfect acquaintance with solid earthy bodies, he gives a short abstract of our present knowledge of lithology; and first offers the characters of stones, drawn from their physical, geometric, and chemical properties; next an account of the different lithological systems, either founded on their external appearance, their chemical nature, or their crystallizations. The usual methods of analysis, and their results, are added. With this inquiry the two first octavo volumes, and the first volume of the quarto edition, conclude.

The fifth section contains the salts, of which, twenty years since, we knew but thirty kinds, while at present we are acquainted with 144. It is, of course, extended through two octavo volumes, and one of the quarto edition. The genus is taken from the acids, the species from the alkali or earth, and each is explained with the author's usual care. A short recapitulation follows, which contains, in very concise language, their distinguishing characters, comprehending an account of their taste, their crystallizations, and the action of the air and water on them. A different kind of recapitulation follows, viz. an attempt to class the salts, so as to distinguish each species by the assistance of one property only; a method truly ingenious, and admirably executed.

M. Fourcroy next enumerates the double decompositions which these numerous species of salts offer. There are some which he merely suspects to take place; but there are still near 1000 well determined.—A table of the composition of salts, with the proportions of their constituent principles; a recapitulation of the fossile salts, and their classification in the different systems of mineralogy; and an analysis of mineral waters, with the methods of preparing the artificial ones; conclude this section.

Of the metals, M. Fourcroy first speaks of the general properties, and then notices each separately. Twenty-one metallic substances are now known. Metals are divided into five genera, distinguished by their ductility and oxydability. The first contains the brittle and acidifiable metals; arsenic, tungstene, molybdena, and chrome. The second are brittle and only oxydable; titanite, uranite, cobalt, nickel, manganese, bismuth, antimony, and tellarium. The third are semiductile; mercury and zinc. Fourth, ductile and easily oxydable; tin, lead, iron, and copper. Fifth, very ductile, and with difficulty oxydable; silver, gold, and platina. In the first article also the obvious or physical properties are described; their natural history; the art of assay and metallurgy. He then speaks of the action of the air on metals; the combination of metals with combustible substances, and with each other; the mutual actions of metals in general on water and oxyds; their affinities with acids, and the salifiable bases. Each metal is then described separately at great length, with their various properties and uses.

The seventh section fills the seventh and eighth volumes, and is confined to the chemical history of vegetable substances. It is divided into what the author styles 'six orders of facts.' In the first he treats of the structure of vegetables, and the difference between them and inorganic bodies; in the second, of their nature and chemical composition; in the third, of their chemical properties; in the fourth, of the different component parts of plants in particular; in the fifth, of the spontaneous al-

terations of which vegetable matters are susceptible; and, in the sixth, of the chemical phænomena of living plants. These orders are expanded into a great variety of subjects, forming together the completest view of the component parts of vegetables that has ever been offered. We shall select only the subdivisions of the last order, as its object may not be clearly understood.

The sixth order is divided into ten articles. The first considers vegetables as chemical instruments, designed to unite, 'at least by threes,' (*au moins trois à trois*) the materials which they collect in the different media in which they live. In the second the author considers vegetable nutrition as the consequence of chemical combinations, the result of which is to form the vegetable compound. In the articles from three to eight, M. Fourcroy examines the influence of light, air, water, carbonic acid gas, soil, and manures. In the ninth he treats of the chemical nature of vegetable functions; and, in the tenth, gives a rapid view of the modifications produced by art in living vegetables, of the alterations excited by numerous external bodies, and by disease.

The last subject, contained in the ninth and tenth octavo volumes, is on animal compounds. This section is divided into four orders of facts. The first, which contains the general doctrines of the anatomical structure and the chemical composition of animals, treats of their organs in general, the functions which they exercise, the history of the chemical discoveries to which they have given birth, and the facts which modern analysis has furnished respecting their constituent elements.

The second order contains the chemical properties of animal compounds in general. After having considered, in the first order, the principles of animal chemistry, the author now speaks of the action of caloric on these compounds. This is followed by an examination of the action of air, water, acids, alkalies, salts, oxyds, metallic solutions, and vegetable matters. The production of animal acids, the formation of Prussian blue, and putrefaction, are next examined and considered, as the most striking characteristics of the animal compound.

The third order contains the chemical properties of animal substances in particular. It is divided into thirty-four articles. The first treats of the different modes of classing animal matters, containing a table, in which they are arranged methodically, with relation to their origin, their region, and their uses. The other articles relate to the different animal substances; but the chemical nature of the blood, the milk, the bile, the urine, biliary and urinary calculi, is the subject of minute and attentive inquiry. Some of the concluding articles relate to animal matters employed in medicine or the arts.

The fourth and last order is one of the most valuable applica-

tions of chemistry; viz. animal physics. The general doctrines are divided into twelve articles. M. Fourcroy first proves the existence of chemical phænomena in the animal life, in respiration, the circulation, digestion, secretion and transpiration, and nutrition. He endeavours to show that the exercise of muscular irritability may depend on a chemical power, and attempts to dissipate in some measure the impenetrable obscurity of this function: he then treats of sensibility, the principal function of the brain and nerves; of generation, which, for want of data, remains still in obscurity; and of ossification, which is more clearly understood. In the eleventh article he explains the difference which the diversity of structure in animals produces in their chemical phænomena; and, in the twelfth, endeavours to prove that there are chemical phænomena in diseases, the study of which must elucidate our knowledge of nature, the causes, and of course the treatment, of such complaints.

Such is the outline of this valuable work, which contains more numerous facts, and more valuable information, than the world has yet received on the subjects of which it treats. The author's range is extensive, and embraces many points beyond the strict limits of his science; but in each he is instructive and entertaining. Few general inquirers can have so little curiosity as not to be interested in this important publication.

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ART. IX.—*Histoire Naturelle des Poissons. Par le C. La Cepede.*

*The Natural History of Fishes. By C. La Cepede. Vol. II. 4to.*

WE have already given an account of the author's plan, and of his progress, in our review of the first volume, which contains the natural history of the cartilaginous fishes. We shall now follow him in his description of the osseous. The third volume may be expected soon; but was not published when we received our last advices from Paris. This, with some additional volumes of the Memoirs of the National Institute, and two other volumes of M. Cuvier's Lectures on Comparative Anatomy, will probably appear about the end of the present year.

From the advertisement to this volume we find that the venerable, the respectable Daubenton, is no more. Science never experienced a greater loss, and humanity never possessed a sincerer friend. Of the illustrious fraternity, Buffon, Daubenton, Montbeillard, and La Cepede, the last only remains; and we shall copy the inscription of the present volume to the memory of the second,

'To
The founder of comparative anatomy,
The propagator of natural history and the philosophy of vegetation,
The benefactor of agriculture,
The just man, the constant friend, the true philosopher,
The illustrious associate of Buffon;
TO DAUBENTON;
The offering of veneration, faithful friendship, and the most affectionate gratitude.'

The second volume is preceded by a discourse on the duration of species, and the changes which they experience.—'Animals,' says he, begin, increase, decrease, and end. The augmentation and diminution of their bulk, their form, and their qualities, compose their individual duration. They succeed without intervals; so constant is nature in her laws, so variable in the effects derived from them. It is in consequence of these laws that species experience modifications more or less considerable; they change, and are sometimes extinguished.

'A species may be lost in two ways. 1. It may be entirely destroyed by a sudden and violent convulsion, which overwhelms the quarter of the globe which it inhabits. 2. It may gradually disappear, in consequence of a long series of insensible changes and successive alterations. Three principal causes may be assigned for these successive degradations:—1. The organs may be deprived of their figure, their bulk, their flexibility, their elasticity, or irritability; so as no longer to produce, transmit, or facilitate the motions necessary to the animal's existence. 2. The activity of these organs may be so much increased, that their resistance may be no longer equal to such increased exertions. 3. A species may undergo so many changes, that, without injuring its aptitude for motion, it may be at last more distant from its former state than another species.'

The author follows up these principles, and examines their influence in different ways; but they appear to us wholly hypothetical, except the first, and they contradict every circumstance which observation has suggested. So far as regards fishes, there are two causes of a change of species; viz. a change of their element, from fresh to salt water; or the contrary, according to their original nature, and an alteration in their food. Whether, as we have before hinted, the natural situation of fishes be salt water, and life be continued in a degenerate state in fresh, is not of importance in the present view. A change, whatever it may be, will possibly occasion a degeneration, and at last an extinction, of the species. The sea is subject also to such convulsions from storms, that the marine insects, the food of the

greater number of fishes, may be destroyed or covered with sand, and the fishes be compelled to migrate where suitable food cannot be procured. This is often witnessed on the sea-coast, where, for many years, some species will not be seen, and again return, occasionally in an improved, more frequently in a degenerated state.

In our author's application of these principles to fishes we cannot always agree with him. He has evidently never examined these animals in their native abodes. We shall add, however, his deductions in his own words.

'We have every day under our eyes examples of fishes carried to waters more muddy or more clear, more stagnant or more rapid, more warm or more cold, which not only display new colours, but experience some more pointed change in their teguments. Bathed, washed, and penetrated by a fluid different from that which once surrounded them, they are covered with scales, warts, tubercles, and points, with little resemblance in their figure, duration, number, or position, to those they once displayed. It is evident that these modifications, produced at the same time in a different situation, might have arisen at a different period in the same situation, and contributed, in a course of ages, to diminish the duration of the species, as well as to contract the limits of its habitation during a determined period.'

These are remarks suggested by observing fishes in a glass vase or a transparent pond. They show no extent of inquiry, no philosophical penetration beyond the contracted limits of the sphere to which the eye is confined. We are warranted in saying that they are not applicable on a large scale; for they relate only to the different states of the animal's health. What he instances of the diminished bulk of sharks from their fossile teeth, which are much larger than at present, in the proportion of 343 to 27, amounts to little till it be ascertained that such are really the teeth of this fish. Many fossile fishes, however, are of the same form and proportion as at present; but in the quarries of Oeningen, near Lake Constance, there are some fossile remains, of which no analogous species are known. Our acquaintance, however, with the fishes of the deepest ocean is probably very limited. We find only the few that come within soundings, perhaps for their peculiar food.

In the former volume M. La Cepede described one hundred and thirty-six genera, of which twenty-eight were new, divided into thirteen new genera. In the present volume is a description of one hundred and seventy-six species, of which twenty-six are hitherto unknown, divided into twenty-three new genera. The third volume will, it is said, contain many other new species.

'The farther we advance,' adds the author, 'the more frequently shall we refer to principles already established, to views already presented, to details already explained; and consequently the particular descriptions will be more concise. The style will necessarily gain more clearness and force; and the conciseness of all the articles leaving more room than their increased number will require, we can lessen the dryness of more particular descriptions by introducing new general views, by properly explaining the history of some more remarkable species, and adding dissertations on important subjects: these are, for example, the distribution of the species of fishes on our globe, the art of fishing, the education and the acclimation of fishes, the productions in consequence of mixing the species, the advantages already accruing to the arts, and what they may farther obtain by the multiplication and melioration of these animals.

'In consequence, partly, of the difference of the number of species which will be described in the third volume, compared with those in the second, the former will contain about eighty plates, while the number in the present does not exceed twenty.'

In our review of the first volume* we remarked that our author had noticed only the three first genera of the fourth division. The present volume, of course, commences with the fourth, the diodon. Of this there are six species. A new one, unknown to Linnæus, described from the MSS of Plumier, is distinguished by the name of that naturalist, described by him as Orbis piscis aculeatus major. Another new species, the spotted diodon, is described from M. Commerson's MSS. Of the spheroides there is a single species only, which is a new one, from Plumier, and by him referred to the ovoides.

The last genus is the syngnathus, the pipe- or trumpet-fish: it is a singular genus, and might afford room for long discussions; but it contains no new species.

The cyclopterus is the first genus of the fifteenth order, or the third of the fourth division—the lump-fish. We find a new species, the epineux (thorny), from the Fauna Groenlandica of Fabricius. The 'double-spotted' occurs in Pennant; the C. spatule in Borlase. Neither is noticed by Linnæus, or his last editor, Gmelin. The next genus is the lepidogasterus, from Gouan.

In the sixteenth order, the fourth of the fourth division, is a genus styled macrorynchus, from the form of the muzzle. It connects the syngnathus with the pegasus, but is different from both. One species only is described from Osbeck. Bonaterre makes it a species of syngnathus. There are three species of the pegasus, and three of the centriscus, but neither is new. In a sup-

* Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXX. p. 533.

plement to the account of cartilaginous fishes, several new species of petromizons, rays, and sharks, are described, which we are unable to notice particularly in the present number. It is enough to point out the varied riches and interesting novelties of the volume before us.

The osseous fishes are next examined. This is the most numerous and most important class; yet the different genera coalesce so easily with, and resemble so nearly, those of the cartilaginous kinds, that we, for a moment, doubt of the propriety of separating them. Even on reflexion we are by no means convinced of this propriety, and might have offered some reasons for such an opinion had the practice of naturalists been at all inconvenient to the student. The great distinction is so clear and obvious, that, should our opinion be established, little more is done than a division of the species into two sections.

The chief characteristic of the osseous fishes is, that the dorsal spine is composed of bony vertebræ instead of cartilaginous ones. There are four grand-divisions of osseous fishes. In the first division are placed the fishes that have a bronchial operculum and a bronchial membrane; the second has the operculum *without* the membrane; the third has the membrane without the *operculum;* the fourth has neither operculum nor membrane. The orders are as before, apodes, jugulares, thoracici, and abdominales, from the want of the inferior fins, or the position of these organs.

The first genus is a new one, though the species are taken from the murænæ. The cœcilia is separated, because it has no fin of any kind; the muræna only wants the *inferior* fins. The cœcilia Branderiana of our author is the muræna cœca of Linnæus. The monopterus, of which only one species is described, (Javensis) is an eel noticed by Commerson: it has only a single fin, near the tail, and the apertures of the eyes are between the nostrils. The leptocephalus, the next genus, was known to Linnæus. Of the gymnotus there are six species, already known. Our author expatiates, at some length, on the power of the gymnotus electricus; but the new science of galvanism had not reached him at the period of his writing, or had escaped him. It is probable that we may find a supplement to this part in the next volume.

The trichiurus affords no new species: one of these is, like the gymnotus, electrical. The next genus, the notopterus, is newly separated from the gymnotus, because it has a distinct dorsal fin. The first species, the N. kapirat, is the G. notopterus of Linnæus; the second, the N. squamosus, is the G. Asiaticus of Linnæus, ed. Gmelin*.—The ophisurus is separated from the muræna in consequence of the want of a caudal fin; and our

* Many of these additions properly belong to Gmelin; yet, as they occur in this edition of Linnæus, we have not always distinguished them.

author's ophisurus, ophis, and serpens, are muræna, ophis, and serpens L. respectively.

The next step is to the fishes that have a very short caudal fin; and the first of this kind is a new genus described by Commerson, to which M. La Cepede has given the trivial name of Bougainvillianus. It was found undigested in the stomach of a scomber.

The apteronotus passan is separated from the genus gymnotus, on account of its having a caudal fin, of which, in that genus, there is no trace. It is the gymnotus albifrons of Linnæus. The genus regalicus is distinguished by its wanting the anal fin. The trichiurus indeed has none; but it has a series of points on that part: the monopteri have only a single fin, and the cœcilia none; so that there is no danger of confounding this genus. There are two species of regalicus, each unknown to Linnæus. The odontognathus forms a distinct genus, on account of a very peculiar appendage to its jaw. One species only is known, found very lately by M. Leblond at Cayenne.

Of the muræna our author describes four species, the M. anguilla, guttata, myrus, and conger, all known to Linnæus. Our author's account of the eel, the first species, is peculiarly interesting and entertaining.—We are sorry that the length of this article, and the attention necessary to the scientific part of it, prevents our offering some extracts. The ammodytes alliciens, which follows, is the sand-eel, the grig in its earlier age, and the only species of the genus.

The thirty-fourth genus is the ophidium, and the species are O. barbatum, imberbe, and uncrak (viride Linnæus). The O. aculeatum Linnæi is placed in another genus, under the title of macrognathus, on account of the length of its jaw, and its inhabiting fresh water. We have generally approved of our author's changes in the classification, but in this instance the alteration is more fanciful than scientific. The M. armatus, a new species, discovered among some dried fishes *sent* from Holland, seems to be a variety only. Each should have been included under the genus ophidium.

The xipheas gladius is described by Linnæus. Another species, scarcely yet known, has the trivial (almost synonymous) appellation, ensis; the species appears, however, wholly distinct. Of the anarrhicas, the sea-wolf, there are three species, the A. lupus, karrak, and pantherinus; the karrak is the A. minor of Linnæus.

The comephorus Baikal has been described as a callionymus by Linnæus; but it wants the jugular fins, and must form a new genus among the apodes: it is particularly described by Pallas. The stromateus contains two species, the S. fratola and parus, both mentioned by Linnæus. The rhomnus alepidotus is the chætodon alepidotus of Linnæus: it is separated, however,

in consequence of the absence of the inferior fins, placed before the anus; nor can it be inserted at all among the thoracici. This fish was sent by Dr. Garden of Carolina to Linnæus.

The next order is the jugulares, from the position of the fins near the throat. The first genus is the murænoides. It was by Linnæus styled a blennius, with the trivial name of muræ-noides. The new genus is formed from a considerable difference of character, and placed at the head of the jugulares, from the fins being very small and almost imperceptible. Our author's trivial name (for these appear to be but one species) is Sujef, from the naturalist who described it in the Petersburg Transactions.

Of the callionymus there are five species, the C. lyra, dracunculus, sagitta Japonicus and punctulatus (ocellatus Linnæi), all described by the Swedish naturalist. The calliomorus has but one species, C. Indicus Linn.; the uranoscopus two, U. mus (scaber Linn.), and Houttuyn (Japonicus Linn.). The trachinus vividus is the T. draco Linn.; and the T. Osbeck is a new species.

The genus gadus is in many respects an important and extensive one; in our author's system it contains nineteen species; G. morhua, æglefinus, bibus (luscus Linn.), saida, blennoides, callarias, tacaud (barbatus L.), capelanus (minutus L.), colinus (carbonarius, L.), pollachius, sey (virens L.), merlangus, molva, lota, mustella, cimbrius, merlucius, and brosme. The G. Danicus is a new species, described from Muller. Our author's account of the cod fishery, in all its extent, is curious and interesting.

The batrachoides, the next genus, is a new one: the first species is a gadus, the second a blenny. The trivial names are tau and blennoides; gadus tau and blennius raninus of Linnæus.

The blennius contains twenty-three species; B. lepus (ocellaris L.), phycis, Mediterraneus, gattorugina, superciliosus, cornutus, tentaculatus (tentacularis L.), Sujefianus (mimus L.), fasciatus, coquillad (galerita L.), pinara (cristatus L.), gadoides (albidus L.), mustela (mustelaris L.), tridactylus (trifurcated of Pennant), pholis, ovoviviparus (viviparus L.), gunellus, Garamit (gadus Garamit of Forshâl), and lumpenus. There are four new species; viz. the B. saliens, from Commerson, who thought it might form a new genus, but it is evidently a blenny; Bosquianus, found by Bosc on the coast of Carolina; punctulatus, from the Museum of the National Institute; and the torsk, found in Greenland, described by Pennant in the British Zoölogy.

The next genus, the eighty-ninth, is styled oligopodus, and it is established for the sake of the coryphæna velifera of Lin-

næus, which is, in reality, a jugularis; though the other coryphænæ are thoracici. This is the only species under the same trivial name veliferus. The kurtus Blochianus is the K. Indicus L.

M. La Cepede next proceeds to the thoracici; and the first genus is the lepidopus, of which there is only a single species, the gonapianus. It forms very properly a new and distinct genus. The hiatula Gardeniana is the lebrus hiatula of Linnæus.

The cepolus is a Linnæan genus, containing three species, the C. tænia, serpentiformis (rubescens L.), and the trachyptera. The tænoides Hermanniana, a new species, never yet described or figured, should perhaps have been placed among the tæniæ.

The genus gobius contains twenty-one species in the system before us; for many of the Linnæan species are separated, though some new ones are added. We find, among those formerly described, the G. pectini rostris, Boddaerti, lanceolatus, aphya, paganellus, cruentatus, nigrofuscus (bicolor L.), bulerot (niger L.), Arabicus, Jozo, Plumieri, eleotris, nebulosus, awaou (ocellaris L.), lagocephalus minutus, Cyprinoides, and Schlosseri. The gobius Bosc is a new one, found by that naturalist in the bay of Charlestown: the G. cœruleus and niger are from Commerson.

The goboides properly form a new genus, though we greatly disapprove every appellation ending in *oid*. The reason of the separation is, that the species of the present genus have a single dorsal fin, while the gobii have two. The G. anguilliformis is the gobius anguillaris L.; and the G. melanurus the gobius melanurus L. Two other species are added, the Smyrnensis, from the Petersburg Transactions, and the G. Brussoneti, from the communications of that naturalist.

The genus gobiomorus is distinguished from both the last genera by the position of their thoracic fins, which are not united, but distinct, and more or less distant from each other; and by their having two fins, while the goboides have one only. The gobiomorus Gronovii is the gobius Gronovii of Linnæus; the G. taiboa is the gobius strigatus L.; the G. Koelruteri the gobius Koelruteri L. The G. dormitor is found in the marshes of South America, and described from the MSS of Plumier.

The gobiomoroides is another new genus, separated from the gobiomorus by its having one dorsal fin only. The only species is the G. piso, the gobius Pisonis L. The gabiesox testar is a new genus of the tribe of gobii, and described from the MSS of Plumier.

The genus scomber contains twelve species, the S. Guara, (cordyla L.) S. thynnus, with which the present volume concludes. We shall resume the whole genus in our account of the third volume, which we expect with some impatience.

To give our opinion of this work, so far as it has gone, we

must express both approbation and displeasure. Of the physiology of fishes, we have said, the account is imperfect; and, in many of the articles, we have declamation instead of information—words instead of facts. The nomenclature is also harsh, unscientific*, and often unpleasing; the species sometimes too numerous. These faults are, however, counterbalanced by many excellences. The genera are numerous, perhaps too much so for the present state of the science; but they are well discriminated, and future discoveries will fill up what now appears a meagre skeleton. The synonyms are numerous and correct, the definitions clear and accurate; the plates well executed—exact rather than elegant or highly finished. We shall wait, we have said, with impatience for the third volume, since in this we shall find the remaining portion of the work, a view of the whole system, a reference to the plates, and, above all, an index.

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* M. La Cepede would have found much useful information for the foundation of generic and trivial names in the Critica Botanica of Linnæus—information not confined to botany. We have approved of preserving the names of enlightened naturalists in the species; but the harshness of some of the names is unpleasing. We may say of some of these with Voltaire, We wish them better information with fewer consonants.

# *RETROSPECT*

OF

# FOREIGN LITERATURE.

## FRANCE.

*Manuel de Médecine Pratique, &c. A Manual of the Practice of Medicine, an Elementary Work. To which are added several Formulæ of Medicaments. By C. Geoffroy, M. D. Member of the National Institute. 2 Vols. 8vo.* Paris.—This little manual is designed for the use of the officers of health resident in the remoter villages, and contains a short and popular account of the common diseases. It offers nothing on which we can enlarge.

*Des Maladies Nerveuses, &c. On Nervous Diseases. By M. N. S. Guillon Pastel.* Paris.—This is a very trifling little work, lamenting the extension of nervous diseases, from effeminacy and luxury, to the more robust inhabitants of the country. The author should have considered that a worse tribe of disorders, viz. the inflammatory, is, in consequence, more rare; and he ought to have known that nervous disorders are not always the result of debility. His pathology is more idle and unsatisfactory than any that we have lately seen.

*Mémoires sur la Nature et le Traitement de plusieurs Maladies. Observations on the Nature and Treatment of various Diseases. By C. Portal, M. D. &c.*—These are 'Essays on particular Diseases,' published in different collections, especially in the Memoirs of the late Academy of Surgery. Many of them have been well received, and are, of course, sufficiently known. M. Portal is the author of several works, which we have had occasion to examine; but he has never ranked highly in our estimation.

*Traité de la Dysenterie, &c. Treatise on the Dysentery in general, containing a new Method of Cure. By J. C. Jacobs, M. D. &c.* Paris.—M. Jacobs published his work originally in Latin; but, with much parade of distinction, he has not added to our knowledge of the treatment. Infection, a defect of the natural

mucus, and too great irritability of the intestines themselves, are the causes to which he directs his medical assistance. But it is doubtful whether the second and third cause, without the first, will ever produce the disease.

*Actes de la Société de Médecine, Chirurgerie, Pharmacie, &c. Acts of the Medical, Chirurgical, and Pharmaceutical Society, established at Brussels under the Title of Ægrotantibus. Embellished with Copper-Plates. Vol. I.* 8*vo.* Brussels.—We have received two parts of this collection, which have not afforded us peculiar pleasure or satisfaction. M. Wurzer endeavours to introduce the water of the laurel leaves as a medicine. It acts as a powerful sedative, checking the action of the heart and arteries, and increasing the action of the absorbents. His directions for preparing the water are not, however, correct; and we would rather recommend mixing a drop of the oil with a given quantity of water, and proportioning the dose to the effects. M. Demanet attributes puerperal convulsions to dropsy, an opinion to which we found Dr. Hamilton lately leaning, and which is not so defective as M. Fournier, in another article, supposes.—Van Mons' memoir on the rhus radicans is interesting. The vapour of the plant in the shade is injurious, but in the sun it is, as in other plants, pure oxygen. The rhus radicans is recommended in palsy; and, in an extract, the deleterious effects are said to be lessened; but we have little doubt of the medicinal powers being equally so. In the dried leaves it is given in doses of a grain or two, two or three times a day. The disease in which it has been tried apparently with success is dropsy. We have, however, little confidence in the specious recommendations of new remedies. The greater number of papers in this volume are very trifling, and it is unnecessary even to transcribe their titles.

*Histoire Naturelle des Mineraux, &c. Natural History of Minerals. By E. M. L. Patrin.* 5 *Vols.* 18*mo.*—This little manual of mineralogy is by no means complete, as some late discoveries are not included. What relates to metals and their ores is, however, perfectly satisfactory. We are pleased with M. Patrin's arrangement, as judicious and scientific. He first treats of the primitive rocks, their component parts, and the precious stones, &c. found in them. He next passes to the secondary strata; and then to the third, in which he includes the stones arising from indiscriminate mixture of the other kinds. Sand is, we think, improperly considered in this department of his system. The metals are arranged in succession, commencing with those which most resemble earth, and proceeding to those which approach nearer to perfection. The inflammables are added at the end.

*Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences et Belles Lettres, &c. Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Polite Letters, from the Accession of Frederic-William II. to the Throne, in the Year 1796, with a History of the same Period.* 4to. Berlin.—The publications of the Berlin Society are usually far in arrear. The present volume, not long since published on the continent, and which has but lately reached England, is for the year 1796; and the History of the Academy for that year is followed by the prizes proposed for 1797 and 1798. A list of the works, either printed or in manuscript, of inventions and machines presented to the academy, follow.

We find this volume, on the whole, uninteresting, and shall therefore content ourselves with transcribing the table of contents. The memoirs are twenty-nine in number.

The first class is that of experimental philosophy, and the first memoir is on the palm-trees in the botanical garden at Berlin, by M. Mayer. 2. On the tree which produces the dragon's blood, by the same author. 3. On the tulip tree, its characters, and its pharmaceutical virtues, which are very trifling, by the same. 4. On the phænomena of the composition and decomposition of water, and on the consequences which may be drawn from them, by J. Trembley. 5. On the objects which require attention in establishing mines, by Gerhard.

The second class is on mathematics, and the first memoir is on music, by Burja. 2. Inquiries into the mortality of the small-pox, by Trembley. 3. On the differential equations (not linear) of the second degree, by the same author. 4. An algebraical solution of the following problem :—'In a given circle, to inscribe a polygon, whose sides pass through given points,'—by Lhuillier. 5. On probabilities, by Lhuillier and Prevost. 6. On the art of estimating the probability of causes by their effects, by the same authors. 7. On the extent of the principle employed in the last article, by the same authors. 8. On physical elements, by Lille. 9. On liberty and compelling powers, by the same. 10. On propriety, by the same author. 11. A dialogue between Berkeley and Hume, by Ancillon. 12. An ontological essay on the soul, by the same author. 13. On the impenetrability of light, by Engel. 14. What is the knowledge most important to man? and what sentiments should we be particularly solicitous to inspire?

The first memoir of the third class of belles lettres contains reflexions tending to *prove that democracy is, of all forms of governments, the least favourable to science and arts;* by the abbé Denina, a pupil of the *old* school. 2. In what manner are the French and Spanish languages formed from the Latin, and from the Celtic, Gothic, or Teutonic? by the same. 3. In what respects do the Spanish and Portuguese languages differ from the Italian or French? by the same author. 4. On the origin of

languages, &c. by the same. 5. On the causes of courage and talents, by the same. 6. On literary blunders, in which their influence on geography is examined, by V. Erman. 7. On the possessions of the royal house of Prussia, by Verdy Duvernois. 8. Essay of a modern Montaigne, by Bastide. 9. Examination of a passage in Macrobius, by J. Trembley. 10. On the duties and rights of literary men in civil society, by Guyon.

## GERMANY.

*H. A. Wrisbergii Commentationum Medici, &c. Medical, Physiological, Anatomical, and Obstetric Observations, delivered to the Royal Society of Sciences at Göttingen. By H. A. Wrisberg. Vol. I. with Copper-Plates.* 8vo. Göttingen.—M. Wrisberg has published in this volume nineteen memoirs formerly printed in the Göttingen Transactions. If we recollect right, there are considerable additions, and perhaps some corrections. The last memoir, 'on the abdominal nerves,' seems to be considerably enlarged; and we perceive three new plates to illustrate the memoir on the internal small-pox.

*Friedrich August Walter, Doctor d. Wund. &c. Einige Krankheiten, &c. Some Diseases of the Kidneys and Bladder, investigated and illustrated by Dissections. By F. A. Walter, Doctor in Surgery and Physic. With Plates.* 4to. Berlin.—These cases were published some years since in the Berlin Memoirs, and are now translated into German from the language of that collection, the French. Two plates are added. The first cases are instances of stone, gangrene, and dropsy of the kidneys. The second is a very singular one. Previous to the gangrene the kidneys were so much enlarged as to give a suspicion of pregnancy. Our author's hydrops renalis is the same with Ruysch's expansio renûm and hernia renalis. It is not, however, strictly dropsy, but an accumulation of urine from a compression of the ureters, by the swelling or schirrosity of some neighbouring gland or organ; at times by an obliteration of their cavities in consequence of inflammation. In these cases the substance of the kidney is destroyed. Among the causes of stone in the bladder itself, our author, with little propriety, considers polypus as occasionally a nucleus. His case of polypus is a curious one; but the tumour was not covered with any calculous concretion.—Some observations on the hernia vesicalis and prolapsus vesicæ, two diseases which our author tells us must not be confounded, and some remarks on hernia uretica, conclude this curious collection. The cavity of the ureticus is not always obliterated after birth, but sometimes remains open during life.

*Asclepiades und John Brown; eine Parallele, &c. A Parallel between Asclepiades and John Brown. By K. F. Burdach, M. D.* 8vo. Leipsic.—Our author is fond of both his heroes, and par-

ticularly partial to the latter. He is, however, equally ignorant of the systems of both, and totally unable to appreciate the merits of either. It would be loss of time to enlarge on his numerous errors.

*Die Wissenchaft des Mänschlichen Lebens, &c. The Science of Human Life, for the Use of those who wish not to live in vain in the World. By C. A. Struve, M. D.* Hanover.—This is rather a moral lesson than a medical work, inculcating the necessity of temperance and of the submission of the passions to reason. M. Struve's principle of universal life, of which man is a part or organ, appears to us a jargon which will admit neither of proof nor application.

*Herodoti Halicarnassi Historiarum, &c. The Histories of Herodotus of Halicarnassus, in Nine Books, revised from the best Copies, and accompanied with Critical Notes. By G. H. Schæfer. Vol. I.* 8*vo.* Leipsic.—The text of Herodotus, in this beautiful and correct edition, has been carefully revised from the commentaries of Wesseling, the four first books of Reiz, and the translation of Larcher. The first volume is, however, the only one which has yet appeared.

*Dissertationes Academicæ Upsaliæ, &c. Academic Dissertations of Upsal, delivered during the Presidency of C. P. Thunberg; with Copper-Plates. Vol. II.* 8*vo.* Göttingen.—We have often had occasion to remark, that, in foreign universities, the academical dissertations are the works of the professor. We need not say that those of M. Thunberg particularly merit our regard. As the work has so lately reached us, we shall not now enlarge on it. Should we find it particularly interesting, we may resume our account of it in a future number.

*Historiæ Amphibiorum, &c. Natural and Literary History of Amphibious Animals. By J. H. Schneider. Number I.* 8*vo.* Jena.—This author has already published the History of Tortoises, and an Essay on the Physiology of Amphibia, in Latin. In the present work he purposes to treat of the history of toads, frogs, salamanders, and serpents. From the title, which promises the natural and *literary* history of amphibia, extracted from more voluminous works, the reader might expect to find a minute detail of the different species, characters, and manners, of this class of animals; but these accounts are not equally complete in all the species. M. Schneider, for instance, with Roesel before him, has given a full description of frogs; but as he apparently wanted an equally minute and faithful guide, he has been less exact with respect to other species. We do not think that, in general, the descriptions are either so clear or so accurate as is usual, and indeed necessary, in scientific works of natural history; nor is the author's arrangement always the same; for the specific character sometimes precedes

and is sometimes mixed with the description. On the whole, however, the author's observations and remarks on the amphibia merit commendation.

*Plantarum rariarum Hungariæ, &c. On the most curious Plants of Hungary. Fourth Decade. Large Folio.*—This work, not less remarkable for its accuracy than for its beauty, is continued with unabated splendor. The fourth decade before us contains, as usual, ten species of plants, coloured from nature, with two sheets of explanation. The plates represent,—1. Kitaibela vitifolia; 2. Vaillantia glabra; 3. Vaillantia pedemontana; 4. Achillæa ochroleuca; 5. beta trigynia; 6. trifolium pallidum; 7. trifolium strictum; 8. dianthus collinus; 9. plantago tenuiflora; 10. astragalus albidus.

*Icones Fucorum, &c. Delineations of the Fuci, symptomatic Characters, Synonyms, and Descriptions of the new Species. The Editor J. C. Esper. Number IV. 4to.* Nuremberg.—M. Esper has modestly taken the title of editor only; and indeed the descriptions are copied from the works of Linnæus, Murray, Gmelin, and Houttuyn. The plates are executed with great care, and coloured with accuracy. The fuci described and coloured in this number are the F. chemnizia, humulosus, crispatus, acicularis, procerrimus, musciformis, corymbiferus, furcatus, vermicularis, racemosus, ceranoides, pinastroides, albidus, gelatinus, diaphanus, acerosus, deformis, flagellaris, vulpinus, plumula, uniformis, tenellus, tenerrimus, tenuissimus.

*Flora Europæa, &c. Continuation of an European Flora. By J. J. Roemer. Number IV.* 8vo. Nuremberg.—This is a continuation of a work of merit, and the former numbers have been received by the scientific botanists on the continent with singular respect. Eight genera of plants are described in this fasciculus, and illustrated by coloured plates; viz. the campanula Zoysii of Wulf; C. trachelium of Linnæus; galanthus nivalis L.; scilla bifolia L.; dianthus cæsius of Smith; aster Tripolium L.; orchis militaris L.; fucus sanguineus L.

*Simplicii Commentarium in Epicteti Enchiridion, &c. The Commentary of Simplicius on the Enchiridion of Epictetus; with the Christian Paraphrase of the Enchiridion, and the Enchiridion of Nilus; all faithfully compared with the ancient Codices and different Lections, and illustrated with Notes. By J. Sweighæuser.* 8vo. Leipsic.—Sweighæuser, already known as an editor of superior abilities by his edition of Polybius, and more lately by that of Epictetus, now completes his view of the stoical philosophy by the publication of Epictetus's best commentator and of his abbreviator. Simplicius, an eclectic philosopher of the sixteenth century, has written a commentary on Epictetus highly praised by Fabricius, not only for its own peculiar excellence, but from the assistance it affords in rectifying a corrupted text. The last

edition of the commentary was published by Salmasius in 1640, and this edition Sweighæuser has reprinted, with numerous corrections drawn from some MSS in the national library, and one in that of Strasburg. A great number of passages are, by these assistances, corrected; one lacuna of more than sixty-nine lines is supplied from a MS in the national library. This addition we have, however, already noticed in our account of the Memoirs of the National Institute of France. (App. vol. XXXI. p. 497.)

The Paraphrasis Christiana Enchiridii was written for the use of the monks, and is little known. The author and the date are equally uncertain. It is quoted by Casaubon, and the text is carefully corrected from the MSS already mentioned.

Nili Ascetæ Enchiridion was the work of Nilus, a monk of the fifth century, who was the author of many ascetic treatises, written chiefly, like this before us, for the use of students. Saurez published these in 1673; and our present editor, in republishing this edition, has corrected the text from a MS at Paris, and one at Copenhagen: notes are added to the text, and the whole is concluded by some explanations of, and remarks on, the commentary of Simplicius.

*Marci Vitruvii Pollionis de Architecturâ, &c. The Architecture of M. Vitruvius Pollio, in Ten Books, compared with the Codex of Guelferbitanus, and others of less Note. Together with a Glossary, in which the Technical Terms of the Art are interpreted in German, Italian, French, and English. By A. Rhode. 2 Vols. 4to.* Berlin. —This is an excellent edition of Vitruvius, chiefly resting on the authority of an ancient MS found in the library of Wolfenbuttle. The editor has consulted also the editions of Sulpicius and Jocundus of 1511, as well as the Italian translation of Galliani, published in 1758. Instead of numerous notes, the explanation of the terms in German, Italian, French, and English, are subjoined. M. Rhode greatly laments the timidity of his publisher, who refused to add the numerous plates which the editor had prepared, lest the expence should not be repaid by the sale. He still preserves the drawings, and waits for a more favourable conjuncture, in order to publish them.

## ITALY.

*Della Dramatica, &c. On the Dramatic Art. By F. A. Capacelli. 8vo.* Milan.—Capacelli, the rival and successor of Goldoni, is collecting his dramatic works, to which the present essay (also published separately) is prefixed. The collection will be published by Celestini, and the first volume has already appeared. It will be enriched by some inedited pieces of considerable merit.

*Dell' Origini, Progressi, e Stato attuale d'Ogni Letteratura. On the Origin, Progress, and present State of every Kind of Literature. By the Abbé D. Giov. Andrés. 7 Vols. 4to.* Parma.—This vast work has been eighteen years in the press, and was completed only in 1799. An attempt so immense appears to be beyond the powers of a single individual; but the abbé, a Spaniard by birth, has found in his erudition and his industry so many resources, that he has finished the work, if not in a complete, yet in a highly creditable manner. As the sciences are contained in the first volumes, a supplement should have been added, to explain their progress while the work was in the press; but in the 'stato attuale' our author is greatly deficient. These volumes have, however, been received, in the earlier stages of the publication, with great respect. They have been directed to be employed as a text book in the literary class lately established in Spain: they have been translated into German; and re-printed, or, in other words, pirated, at Venice.

To give a full account of seven large quartos, professedly in a great measure compiled from other authors, neither suits our object nor our limits; to pass them cursorily would be equally improper: we shall therefore steer the middle course, and give a short account of the contents of each volume in its order.

In the first volume the author examines the state of literature anterior to the Greeks; yet, except perhaps among the Jews, we can find little but hypothesis or fable. He pursues the progress of science to Greece, to Rome, and to Arabia, comparing its state in each country, and attributes to the Arabs the inventions of printing, paper, and gun-powder.

With respect to the Italian literature of the middle ages, or what is styled the revival of learning, our author contends that it owes more to the Arabs than to the Greek refugees who fled to Italy after the capture of Constantinople. Similar observations on the causes of the progress and the decline of letters conclude the first volume, which contains the history of literature to the end of the fifteenth century.

The beginning of the second volume presents us with the literary history of the sixteenth century; and the author expatiates on the origin, progress, and different branches of literarature, in distinct chapters. The first comprehends the history of poetry, which the abbé examines in every view, including even that of romance. The subject is pursued in the third volume, comprising eloquence, history, and the study of language. From its immense extent, the inquiry into the origin, progress, &c. of the natural sciences was a work of difficulty and labour. The author divides them into three books. The first, which fills nearly all the fourth volume, treats of mathematics in general, and, in particular, of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, mechanics, hydrostatics, navigation, astronomy, acoustics, and optics.

The second book, continued in the fifth volume, contains natural philosophy in general and particular. The author hints at the objection we made in the beginning of the article, that, as this volume was printed in 1790, the new discoveries in chemistry would have no place. In speaking on this subject, he remarks that chemistry was diligently studied by the Greeks; and, in support of his opinion, quotes a very valuable MS in the library of St. Mark at Venice, containing a list of Greek chemists, and the characters employed by them. It were to be wished that he had given a fuller account of this MS, and of its supposed æra. The fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh chapters are respectively confined to botany, the history of animals, anatomy, and medicine.

Three chapters on the speculative sciences follow; viz. on the philosophy of reason, on moral philosophy, and jurisprudence. The abbé takes no notice of the system of Kant, with which he is seemingly unacquainted.

The sixth and seventh volumes contain the history of theological sciences. The author does not affect to conceal the difficulty and danger of undertaking to treat of these subjects. His language is peculiarly strong.

'No anger is so violent as that of theologists. Those celestial souls, zealous for the interest of heaven and the glory of God, seem to think themselves deficient in their religious duties, and in the service of the Lord, if they hear with patience, or a candid toleration, a proposition, an expression, nay even a word, inconsistent with their mode of thinking, and are easily inflamed when an author does not express himself to their satisfaction.'

Besides theology, properly so called, these chapters contain the history of the other sciences connected with it, particularly ecclesiastical law. At the end of the seventh volume there is a general table of the contents of the whole work. We could wish that this work were taken up by an able English philosopher. We would not recommend a professed translation; but it might be abridged, and form, in about six or eight octavo volumes, a valuable and instructive history of science.

*Petrarc in Arqua, &c. Petrarc at Arqua, a scientific and historical Essay. By J. B. Zaborro. With Plates.* 8vo. Padua.—This is the posthumous work of a young man of considerable talents, cut off at a very early age. It was composed in 1797, with a view of drawing the public attention to the antiquities and rural views of Arqua, the last retreat of Petrarc, which, without this circumstance, might have never been noticed. Zaborro collects in his memoir all that Tomasini has said of this inimitable poet in his Petrarca Re Divino; but he has arranged

the facts with much skill, and has adorned them by the charms of his style. The editors, on their side, have contributed to the elegancies of the work by adding the portraits of Petrarc and Laura, with six other beautiful plates, representing, 1. A view of the sea about a league from Arqua; 2. A view of Arqua; 3. The tomb of Petrarc; 4. The fountain of Arqua; 5. The house which Petrarc inhabited; 6. A chest and chair which the poet used.

## SWITZERLAND.

*Entomologie Helvetique, &c. Helvetic Entomology, or a Table of the Insects of Switzerland, arranged after a new Manner. With coloured Plates.* Zurich.—This is the first volume of a beautiful and valuable work, of which we mean to notice the continuation. It contains the eleven first genera, and to each genus is added a description of its characters, manners, &c. The plates are coloured with extreme care and accuracy, and the descriptions printed in French and German, on opposite pages. The introduction is very elaborate and instructive. The author explains the characters of insects, and the objects to which, in their examination, the attention should be directed. These are, first, the form of the head, of the eyes, and their situation; secondly, the place of the antennæ; thirdly, the form and the joints of the antennæ; fourthly, the number of the joints; fifthly, the number and form of the tarsi in all the feet. On each of these characters the author engages in a variety of details, and concludes with requesting the communications of naturalists, which he proposes to unite with his own observations, in a journal under the title of the Archives of Insects; forming hereby a continuation of a similar work by M. Fuessli in 1781, and which was interrupted by his death. In the work itself the author has adopted the distinction of insects with wings and without, subdivided into insects with jaws, and those with organs adapted to suction alone.

## DENMARK.

*Statens Ven, &c. The Friend of the State; or, Inquiries into Individual and Public Felicity. By Boye. 2 Vols. 8vo.* Copenhagen.—Though this be the second edition of the work, yet, as it escaped us in its former impression, and contains views of some importance and originality, we shall give a short account of it. With his predecessors the author agrees in laying down one principle, that the only general law of human nature seems to be the desire of happiness, and that happiness consists in satisfying the wants which we feel. The author then engages in an interesting analysis of the principal modifications of the soul, which he properly reduces to one, viz. the necessity of intellec-

tual activity.—In the fourth and fifth chapters of the first volume he explains the difference between negative and positive virtue. The first, he remarks, consists in not obstructing the happiness of others, that we may not be ourselves impeded in the same pursuit: the second, in sacrificing our pleasures to the general good. This sacrifice, however, in effect, is a single effort; for all virtue is only a properly regulated self-love. According to this docrine, therefore, there is no absolute duty. The ideas of virtue and justice vary according to the degree of cultivation man has attained; and, since the use of words and of reason, which contributes most essentially to this cultivation, are accidental only, a nation may as well exist without virtue as without vice. This system, which overturns every principle *à priori*, and expressly denies general abstract truths, agrees but ill with the transcendental metaphysics so fashionable in Germany. M. Boye sees the incongruity; and, in his sixth chapter, endeavours to prove that the philosophy of M. Kant rests on chimerical abstractions, and particularly that a virtue founded on absolute duty, unsupported by motives of interest, is contrary to the universal law of nature. Even the stoical virtue was interested: a haughty independence, for this was the essence of the system, contrived only for those who wanted the consolations of immortality. This doctrine of an immortal soul, and that of a providence or a moral power which governs the universe, form the principal part of our author's system. He is completely victorious over atheism; but he does not seem to exert his powers with the same spirit against pantheism, which indeed is not absolutely incompatible with his principles.

The second volume chiefly relates to the origin of natural and political right, which M. Boye considers only as conditional agreements. We particularly noticed, in this second volume, the passage where the author paints man, society, and nature in general, as only recognising the right of the strongest, and where he draws, from this universal reign of power, an argument in favour of his moral theory. He has noticed also his discussion in opposition to Rousseau on the primitive state of man, which he properly distinguishes from the golden age. In another chapter he endeavours, with some success, to show that we owe all our moral perfectibility to civil society.

If we trace in these volumes many of the ideas of Hobbes, of Hume, and other sceptical philosophers; if the imagination be sometimes employed in clearing the difficulties in the passage; if our author's aversion to harsh and barbarous language leads him into a style sometimes too oratorical, and occasionally too poetical; yet an unprejudiced reader will find a sufficient compensation in the author's profound reverence for revelation, and this bold and decided respect for virtue expressed in a language which would not have debased the best ages of Greece. We

lament the more the sceptical parts of this work, because they are not essential to his system, nor apparently congenial with his opinions. His opposition to M. Kant, on the contrary, is expressed in the forcible language of the heart, and breathes the true spirit, the innate dignity, of virtue founded on its firmest support.

*Prosaiske Forsoeg, &c. An Essay in Prose, containing Camilla and Constance; a Romance, founded on the Events of the French Revolution. By K. L. Rahbek.* 8vo. Copenhagen.—The author's chief object is to show how individuals, equally honest and intelligent, may be drawn into opposite parties; to display the effects of civil dissensions in destroying the happiness and repose of families; to teach the violent partisan moderation, the persecutor pity, and every one that humane and philosophic toleration which is always ready to pardon and conciliate. The importance of these objects induces us to notice the romance before us, though a part of a collection of novels, and not yet concluded. With respect, however, to the effect of the work on the persons to whom it is chiefly addressed, we think, with the author, that 'those whose eyes have not been opened by the desolation of the world will scarcely be converted by a few pages written in a language little known.' Yet M. Rahbek's work is so interesting, that we wish to see the conclusion, and to find it translated into French. The tale is peculiarly affecting, and the groupes well arranged. We particularly noticed the events of the 5th and 6th of October, where three young friends met in a scene highly terrific:—one dragged to execution by a furious populace, another at the head of the assassins, and the third making ineffectual efforts to appease the multitude. The author shows a particular and minute acquaintance with the events of the revolution, and describes several of the scenes with as much spirit as if he had assisted in them. There are also some very ingenious reflexions on the causes of the revolution.

M. Rahbek is one of the most ingenious novelists of the north. His style is rich and harmonious, full of grace and sensibility; yet it wants the terseness and force of which the Danish language is particularly susceptible: but it may be truly alleged that such narratives require the pen of a Marmontel rather than of a Tacitus.

*Danskes Rejse-Iagttagelser, &c. Observations of Danish Travellers; a Journal published every Three Months. By J. Neuman.* Copenhagen.—Though we seldom have it in our power to notice any journals but those of superior excellence and credit, yet the singularity and importance of this before us has induced us to admit a few lines to introduce the Danish Travellers to the English nation. We have received only the three first numbers; and shall notice a few of the most important articles.

—The first contains 'Observations on Germany and Holland, by Dr. Engelstoft.' This traveller has examined the countries through which he passed with a philosophic eye; and his remarks well deserve notice, were we in this place able to enlarge on them.—'A Description of Pyrmont, by Dr. Frankenau.' The waters of Pyrmont are well known; but our traveller's account of them is not very favourable. The good effects are rather owing, in his opinion, to imagination than to intrinsic virtue; and, in the eagerness to disapprove, he neither spares the physicians, the inns, the style of living, nor the little sovereign of this small district. He might have succeeded better with more moderation.—'An Account of the Seminary of M. Salzman at Schepfenthal,' by an anonymous author. The mode of education at this seminary is highly commended, and it may merit the attention of parents in the northern regions. To the English reader it would be very uninteresting. It may be worth observing, that a full account of it is also published in Wieland's German Mercury.—'The Departure of the Russians from Göttingen.' This was one of the violent fancies of the *magnanimous* Paul. The scene is affecting. These young men quitted, 'with tears of despair,' this seat of the German muses. These were twenty-five in number, who spent annually more than 200,000 francs.—'Report of the Committee of Weights and Measures, by M. Bagge.' It is this preliminary relation which has been so much condemned. It is well known that Germany received with the greatest reluctance the new French weights and measures, and those who could resist did so. The venerable professor of astronomy at Saxe-Gotha told M. de Lalande, who was sent to introduce them, that it would be impossible, the French were so unpopular. Whether they are now less so we cannot say; at least they are more powerful. We know not what were the faults of M. Bagge, except his complaisance; for he warmly praises the politeness and attention of the French philosophers, MM. la Place and de Neufchâtel. *Hinc forsan illæ lacrymæ.* If the French are welcomed with tears of joy, these have been often changed to tears of blood. In another article we find the Attic evenings and the tea-drinkings of M. Millin highly commended.

*J. C. Tode's Poëtiske Arbejder, &c. The Poetical Works of Tode.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* Copenhagen.—M. Tode is a German, long since settled in Denmark, and a conspicuous medical character, whose remarks on the Perkinean method of curing by tractors we have already had an opportunity of noticing. His poetical works are not peculiarly happy; the versification is careless, and the language void of delicacy: yet his poems are lively and pleasing, and display no inconsiderable knowledge of human nature.

# REVIEW

OF

# MAPS AND CHARTS.

*Map of Asia, by Archibald Arrowsmith. Four Sheets.* Sold by the Author, Rathbone-Place.

THE progress of geography in England can scarcely be said to have kept pace with the other sciences. At the beginning of the last century the maps of Senex and Moll, the last a German if not the former, were little better than copies from those of Sanson and Delisle. The French, indeed, have the grand merit of being the first improvers of this important science; and it is only within these twenty years that we have presumed to enter the lists.

Yet, by an unaccountable singularity, our general treatises of modern geography have been justly esteemed superior to those of any other nation; and the French themselves have confessed, by their recent translation of Guthrie, that they have no work even to compare with that erroneous and ill-digested compilation. The English geographical *grammars*, as they are absurdly called, began with that of Gordon, who, like a dry mathematician, was generally contented with a bare list of names of provinces, cities, &c.; and the odd name *grammar*, unknown to any language in this acceptation, seems to have originated with this mathematician, more conversant in numerals than in words. Mr. Salmon, having published a kind of universal modern history, seems to have been engaged by the booksellers to write a new Geographical *Grammar*; that of Gordon, always extremely dry, having become very defective and antiquated. In like manner Mr. Guthrie, having published a large modern history and other works now justly forgotten, was employed to draw up a new geographical *grammar*, which was published about 1768 in a thick octavo volume.

When even in France, as has been already mentioned, the systems of modern geography by no means rival that of the ancient published by D'Anville, it is no wonder that in other European countries the defect was still more apparent. Italy, Spain, and Portugal, produce nothing of the kind; and, in the North, Denmark and Sweden have few pretensions; though, in the latter country, a tolerable system appeared, in which the justly ce-

lebrated Bergman took a share, by describing the various strata and the internal composition of this planet so far as they can be discovered. But as France, which produced such excellent maps, was deficient in her system of modern geography, so, on the other hand, Germany, in which few good maps have appeared, excelled in geographical productions. The description of Europe by Busching is justly regarded as one of the most important geographical works of modern times; but fourteen volumes in quarto upon one quarter of the world would have required at least another fourteen for a description of the whole; and Busching has erred by usurping many of the minute provinces of the topographer and gazetteer; while Fabri has, on the other hand, been somewhat too brief and dry. The Geographical Magazine of Busching which appeared in many small quarto volumes, and the well known journal of Zach, may evince with what ardour the Germans pursue this noble science. Yet their writers are chiefly estimable in regard to their own country; for the original German books of travels and voyages are few and unimportant; and their arrangement, divisions, style, and manner, often impress the English reader as tedious and uncouth, as they strike the classical scholar with a great deficiency in elegance and taste. Hence the German works in geography, though confessedly the best and most scientific, are only consulted as books of utility, and are in vain recommended by a few Germans in England and France, themselves entire strangers to the purity of language and just taste in arrangement and composition which are deemed essentially requisite to works of real merit in the enlightened countries of Europe, where there are classical works of ancient date, while the German style is of very recent cultivation.

In a more immediate view of the present subject, after our mapmakers had been long contented to borrow from the French, at last, within these twenty years, the preceding enterprise and success of our arms in various quarters of the globe, but above all the various discoveries of Cook and other navigators, induced us to assume this grand province of geography into our hands, and most deservedly to take the lead even of the French in the construction of maps and charts. D'Anville unhappily left no successor; and the French productions of this kind, though still meritorious, may be most candidly asserted to yield infinitely to those of the English. Even the progress and vast superiority of the art of engraving in this country has contributed to this effect; for in vain is a map constructed with great care and precision if, as frequently happens in Germany and some other countries, the writing be so minute, confused, or poorly executed, that there is more trouble in finding an object than what the research is worth, except on a scientific and a solemn occasion. Thus Wahl's Map of Persia, the recent oblong Atlas of the Austrian dominions,

and a thousand other German productions, in fact lose all their value, because it is impossible to use them without a strong magnifier. Nay so deficient are the Germans in the practical part of geography, the engraving of maps, that the best of their own country is by Chauchard, a foreigner; and there is yet no map of Germany in which the mountains are delineated; nay we have seen a recent very large map of Hungary in which it was impossible to trace the grand Carpathian chain, as it was only studded like many other parts with little mole-hills, in the antiquated manner of D'Anville—an absurdity as great as that in Olmadilla's South America, in which the Andes are omitted! As the numerous maps published by Homann are neat, but grossly inaccurate, so the modern German maps are sometimes accurate, but, in general, most confusedly and feebly executed; while, in France and England, beauty and accuracy are often united.

These general observations have appeared not unnecessary, as, in this new department of our journal, we have to invite the reader's attention to a subject which, though strictly literary, had never before obtained a proper place or consideration. But as they have already exceeded our intended brevity, we shall now confine ourselves to the important article under view.

This beautiful and capital map is, when mounted, about four feet ten inches in length, by little more than four feet in breadth, thus yielding somewhat in size to Mr. Arrowsmith's Map of Europe. The scale, is, however, not above half the size of that of Europe, which little exceeds in extent one third part of the wide continent of Asia. But on the north-east and in the south considerable portions and islands are omitted. As it will give us peculiar pleasure at all times to bestow due praise upon the acknowledged merit of Mr. Arrowsmith's productions, so he must excuse us if we occasionally point out defects which are incidental to all human labours; and as he is possessed with an ardent desire to improve this grand and important science, we believe that he will be the first to approve of any objections which may arise to us, and which will never, we trust, be dictated by the spirit of cavil, but by the mere and sole wish of promoting the knowledge of geography. The north-east extremity of Asia, and the strait between it and America, ought doubtless still to be inserted on a smaller scale in the adjoining corner of the map. And though the southern part of Malacca present few objects of consequence, yet it ought to have been contained in a map of Asia; and the omission is the more singular, as our geographer's map of Europe has a breadth of five unnecessary inches at the bottom, perhaps intended for the dedication and portrait, which are placed in Africa. We can pardon the omission of many Asiatic isles, which might have greatly increased the breadth; and as we know little of them but the coast, they are perhaps better adapted to the form of a chart.

The degrees of longitude are computed from Greenwich, but where they run off on the margins it becomes difficult to trace them; and we approve the plan adopted in some large foreign maps, in which the central lines of longitude and latitude are somewhat thicker than the others, and graduated, so that the just positions may easily be ascertained. For, in maps as in books, every thing that saves time in the consultation is of great consequence; and it is proper that the author should bestow labour for once to save the repeated toils of numerous successions of readers or inquirers.

The projection of maps, especially of the hemisphere and large portions of it, is seldom strictly mathematical; and the circular lines of latitude rarely find their exact centre in the lengthened meridian. But we believe that the present is as just in these respects as the generality of maps; and the reader needs not be reminded that it is absolutely impossible to represent a large portion of a sphere upon a flat surface with minute and mathematical truth.

The engraving is very beautiful and clear; but the sea is not watered as in our author's Europe, and we think this expence has been ill-saved, as it leaves a poverty in the general effect. The outline of the coast is equally visible in either way, but in the mode usually practised the difference between land and water is more clear and decided; and the defect of this new manner, which, far from being an improvement, is really a deterioration, is strikingly felt in searching for lakes; that of Altyn, for instance, being almost undiscernible, and confounded with the courses of rivers. The colouring can never remedy this defect, for in every copy which we have seen many lakes have been neglected, whence it is often impossible to discriminate two branches of a river encircling an island, from a lake—that is, land from water. We must, therefore, loudly reprobate this new plan in every point of view, both of beauty and convenience; and must add that it gives a mean and penurious aspect to the shores, while the wide shade imparts both richness and beauty to the general effect.

We also agree with a German critic, that the mountains had far better have been depicted in what is called the military or topographic manner, that is, as seen from above: and, by a little skill in engraving, the nature of the range, whether low, high, round, or peaked, may be as well delineated in this way as the other. Not to mention that the perspective plan would strictly require exactness in the form of each hill, a matter impossible to human industry; while the topographic only pretends to show the general bearing of the ridge, on which particular summits may be clearly and precisely ascertained. Add to this, that the sources of rivers, towns, villages, and other objects which occur on mountains, must be often wrongly marked in the perspective

plan, which presents only one side; while, in the other, both sides being visible, the most minute points become clear and precise. Mr. Faden's beautiful Map of the South-east Provinces of France is one of the best English models of the topographic plan.

Yet, upon the whole, the mountains have, in most maps, been laid down in so careless and slovenly a manner, that we highly applaud the superiority of the present production. The grand chains are most strongly expressed, and, in general, with a considerable degree of precision—a chief standard of perfection in any map, and which, like other great improvements in the sciences, has made a very tardy appearance.

After these remarks on this capital production, considered as a whole, we shall proceed to some observations on particular parts, beginning with the northern and central divisions, or the Russian and Chinese empires. As the mathematical part, or the exact graduation, has been already forestalled in the *Geographische Ephemeriden** for February and March last, we shall not enlarge upon it. The German critic is confessedly ignorant of Mr. Arrowsmith's authorities for several alterations in longitude and latitude; but we rather incline to confide in our author's skill, when we consider the numerous opportunities which he has of consulting the most recent charts and observations of our naval officers employed in every sea. Thus, for instance, the longitude of some parts of Japan, which differs greatly from former maps, was founded on observations which must have seemed to Mr. Arrowsmith unobjectionable; for we are not inclined to believe that he is rash or fond of unnecessary change.

In Asiatic Russia the positions and names are unavoidably rare. Every reader will be impressed with the astonishing length of some of the appellations in this part; and we are persuaded that such prolixity is often unnecessary, and occasioned by the addition of Russian or Tartarian words, signifying a river, a lake, a town, a village—just as if, in ignorance of the French language, a Russian engraver should put *Lenoblefleuveduseine*, instead of Seine F. Of such mistakes there is a risible instance in a late most scientific traveller, Faujas de St. Fond, who gravely puts—*crossthetweedandenterscotland*, as a village on the English frontier. On inspecting the general map of the Russian empire, published in Latin in 1787, we cannot perceive such formidable names as Mr. Arrowsmith has introduced, and

* It is rather unusual for one literary journal to refer to another; but the Geographical Journals by Zach and Gaspari are of so peculiar a kind, and held in such esteem, that we must be permitted, in this instance, to depart from common rules; especially as no others of that description are published throughout Europe.

which far surpass all human pronunciation; not to mention the additional objection, that the real name mentioned in history and travels is thus rendered undiscoverable: for instance, Zuruchaitu, the place where commerce is carried on with the Chinese in the south of the province of Nertchinsk. It is indeed to be wished that the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg would revise and explain the geographical terms in general.

The frontier towards the Chinese empire seems to be laid down with laudable care and attention; but the river of Kerbetchi, mentioned as one of the limits in the solemn treaty between Russia and China, published by Du Halde in his fourth volume, is omitted by our author, along with many other places, which he might have found mentioned in the Travels of Pallas, and which are remarkable, either in civil or natural history. It was indeed the peculiar advantage of D'Anville, that to his skill in constructing maps he superadded a great portion of learning; while, in general, the drawers of maps are little versed in any language except their own, and have not the most distant pretensions to literature: whence their best productions are crowded with useless names, and several most interesting objects totally neglected. This was at first the case even in France, and is the chief cause of the imperfection of geography,—the manual part being wholly distinct from the intellectual.

To the south of the desert of Issim the engraver has elongated the Altaian chain of mountains, so as to meet those of Ural, which Pallas represents as bending to the south-west, while only some calcareous hills extend into the desert of Issim. But for this range, which would introduce a new feature into Asiatic geography, we conceive that the engraver alone is responsible.

The interesting environs of the Sea of Baikal present the most pleasing feature in Siberian geography, and seem to be here laid down with great care and precision; but a few more names might have been inserted in the southern parts, and in the Russian province of Daouria.

On proceeding to the Chinese empire, we find that our author has been under the necessity of using the maps of the Jesuits, as arranged by the able D'Anville in his Atlas to Du Halde, 1734, and afterwards in his large Map of Asia 1752. Unhappily, there are no other authorities for what is called Chinese Tartary, which is deeply to be regretted, as the exactness of these maps is far from being undoubted.

Yet many of the appellations might have been greatly improved by the more precise knowledge, concerning many of these nations and countries, to be found in the Travels of Pallas and others, which have become generally known, in western Europe, by French translations. But it will be well worthy the

ambition of English enterprise to disclose the interior parts of Asia with greater accuracy and precision. In the mean-while Mr. Arrowsmith might have profited by the well-known discoveries of Pallas, so as to have given greater novelty and precision to this part of his valuable map. But as this topic may lead to some discussion, and several observations will arise concerning Western Tartary and other parts, we must reserve the remainder of this article for a future occasion; yet must embrace this first opportunity of observing that the German critic is greatly deceived when he supposes that Mr. Arrowsmith derived any intelligence from the *intended* map by sir William Ouseley, as that learned gentleman never proceeded further in his design than the insertion of a dozen or two of names in Persia, the only country he endeavoured to delineate; and these names being written in Persian, Mr. Arrowsmith could not have read them if he even had had access, which he had not, to sir William Ouseley's sketch, or rather shadow of an outline of a sketch.

*(To be concluded in our next Appendix.)*

*** After this article was sent to the press a friend of Mr. Arrowsmith handed to us the following Note from that ingenious artist, which we hasten to communicate to the public.

'The *Connoissance du Tems* for 1795 (the last which I possess) gives Nagasaki in Japan at 128° 35′ east from Greenwich.

'D'Anville's Map of Asia, 1751, marks the difference of longitude between Nagasaki and Sand-down Point at 10° 20′. The map by Kœmpfer gives nearly the same difference.

'Now Sand-down Point, in captain King's Chart of the East Coast of Japan, is 141° east from Greenwich; hence 141° 00′ *minus* 10° 20′ will give 130° 40′ for the longitude of Nagasaki. But I have shortened the distance between these two spots sixty miles of longitude, (in that latitude) on the authority of a MS. chart of the Argonaut's Voyage in 1791*. The exactness of that chart I shall not pretend to determine; but I think it may be fairly inferred that the true longitude of Nagasaki will be found to be between 130° 40′ and 131° 40′, and of course the position 128° 35′, in the *Connoissance*, 1795, cannot be admitted.

'A. A.'

To this note we may add, that captain Colnutt found no *land-lock* between Corea and Japan; so that the latter is further from the former than is commonly laid down. In an *historical*

* See my Chart of the Pacific Ocean, 1798.

point of view Japan cannot be so near Corea as D'Anville marks; for the accounts of both countries, the Tartar invasion, &c. &c. evince a greater distance, and Mr. Arrowsmith's map agrees better with the circumstances: nor is the *Connoissance* infallible, as the German critic seems to think.

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*Map of the Province of Upper Canada, describing all the new Settlements and Townships, with the Countries adjacent, from Quebec to Lake Huron. Compiled at the Request of his Excellency Major-General J. G. Simcoe, First Lieutenant-Governor. By William David Smyth, Surveyor-General. One Sheet.* 10. 6d. *With a Description in Octavo.* Faden.

IT is with great pleasure we can announce an English map so peculiarly elegant and correct, that, even in the former quality, France has not excelled it. We were only acquainted with this country, as geographers, from the beautiful map of Mr. Arrowsmith, published in 1793, from materials, *as it is asserted*, which were put into his hands by the Hudson-Bay Company. We may probably claim some share of the merit of the present valuable print, since we loudly complained of the concealment of information in the company's possession, and were induced to believe it *possible* that the pretended straits of De Fuca might lead to some of the lakes on the west of Hudson's Bay. Yet we added, that, if the longitudes, as far as they were known, were correctly given, this was highly *improbable*. The publication before us has decided the point in our favour, since the most western country ever reached by European travellers in that parallel was twelve degrees in longitude distant from the presumed strait, and immense ridges of stony mountains were, most probably, interposed. We expect, however, farther information on this subject from the travels of Mr. Mackenzie, who has reached the shores of the Pacific from Upper Canada: and we need scarcely add that the pretensions of De Fuca are entirely destroyed by the discoveries of Vancouver; though the distance between the extreme point to which Mr. Fidler reached in 1792, and the sea is also less, as the supposed American coast in these parallels appears to be often clusters of islands. Mr. Mackenzie's travels are, we understand, in the press.

As we have never had an opportunity of noticing Mr. Arrowsmith's map, we shall take this occasion to remark that it is full, accurate, and instructive. It extends from the Fox Islands in the Pacific on the west to the Banks of Newfoundland on the east; and from near 70° north (including Mr. Mackenzie's discovery of the sea in lat. 69° 14′) to Cape Mendocino on the west, lat. 40°; of course to the south of Lake Michigan and New York.

The geography of the country to the west of Lake Winnipeg must, of course, be meagre and unsatisfactory; but where nothing was previously known, the most inconsiderable information should be received with gratitude. We trust there is not the slightest foundation for the insinuation that political motives influenced the publication, and some parts of the information; but, when we reflect that the trade of the Hudson's-Bay Company in peltry interferes in part with the staple of Upper Canada, if we can trace some difference in the position of different points, we may be led to attribute it to other motives than inaccuracy or ignorance.

The map more immediately before us, compiled at the request, and under the auspices, of general Simcoe, who resided some years in Upper Canada, and was peculiarly active in gaining information, is, as we have already said, one of the most useful and elegant publications of the kind that English geography has produced. We regret, however, that it is not more extensive. It reaches from about 70° 40′ west longitude to about 85°, and from about 41° 10′ to 48° 10′ north latitude. The British possessions are distinguished from the American by an orange line, and from the province of Lower Canada by a purple one. The boundary on the north is the great Ottowa river, and on the east Point Boudet, the higher seignoral possession of Lower Canada, probably not to confound the holdings of different settlers under the same government. The extent of Upper Canada by this means, on the east, is highly advantageous, as it comprehends a fertile district on the north and east of the River St. Lawrence and Cape François, and on the south of the Ottowa. On the whole, this territory seems to promise very considerable advantages; and, from the extent of the lakes to the west and south, there seems little doubt of the Upper Canadians enjoying a great portion of the fur trade.—But this is from our present purpose.

We shall select, from the accompanying description, an account of the capital of Upper Canada.

'York, which is, at present, the seat of government of Upper Canada, lies in about 43 degrees and 35 minutes north latitude, and is most beautifully situated within an excellent harbour of the same name, made by a long peninsula, which embraces a bason of water sufficiently large to contain a considerable fleet. It has this advantage over the other ports on Lake Ontario, that vessels may ride safely at its entrance, during the winter.

'On the extremity of the peninsula, which is called Gibraltar Point, are commodious stores and block-houses, which command the entrance to the harbour. On the main land, opposite to the Point, is the garrison, situated on a point made by the harbour and a small rivulet, which, being improved by sluices, affords an

easy access for boats to go up to the stores. The barracks, being built on a knoll, are well situated for health, and command a delightful prospect of the lake to the west, and of the harbour to the east. The government house, which is not yet finished, is about two miles above the garrison, near the head of the harbour, and the town is increasing very rapidly. The front of the city, as now laid out, is a mile and a half in length: several handsome squares are projected, particularly one open to the harbour. The river Don empties itself into the harbour a little above the town, running through a marsh, which, when drained, will afford beautiful and fertile meadows: this has already been effected in a small degree, which will no doubt encourage further attempts. The long beach or peninsula, which affords a most delightful ride, is considered so healthy by the Indians, that they resort to it whenever indisposed: and so soon as the bridge over the Don is finished, it will of course be generally resorted to, not only for pleasure, but as the most convenient road to the heights of Scarborough.

'The ground which has been prepared for the government house is situated between the city and the river Don, in a beautiful spot; and its vicinity well suited for gardens and a park. The oaks are large, the soil excellent, and watered by various streams: the harbour is well calculated for ship-building and launching of vessels. The Yonge-street, or military way, leading to Lake Simcoe, and from thence to Gloucester on Lake Huron, commences in the rear of the city. This great communication has been opened to Gwillimbury, 32 miles; and must be the great channel to the north-west, as it is considerably shorter than the circuitous route by the straits of Niagara and Detroit. Farm lots of 200 acres are laid out on each side of Yonge-street, having a width of a quarter of a mile each, on the street: in general the land is excellent, and fit for every purpose of husbandry. After leaving Gwillimbury, you enter Holland river, and pass into Lake Simcoe, by the head of Cook's bay, to the westward of which are oak plains, where the Indians cultivate corn; and on the east is a tract of good land. A few small islands shew themselves as the lake opens, of which Darling's island, in the eastern part, is the most considerable. To the westward is a large deep bay, called Kempenfelt's bay, from the head of which is a short carrying-place to the river Nottuasague, which empties itself into the Iroquois bay, in Lake Huron.' P. 22.

In the acute angle of the triangle, formed by Lakes Erie and Ontario on one side, and the bendings of Lake Huron on the others, is Lake St. Clair, into which falls a river denominated the Thames, on whose banks a city is founded, styled London. This is proposed to be the seat of government; but we think it too remote from the midland and eastern districts for that pur-

pose; and the great advantages derived from the military way called '*Dundas-street*,' which opens the communication with York, will be equally felt if York be continued the capital. We have no doubt of Upper Canada being a vast and flourishing country, whether annexed to the United States, as we fear it must be in some future time, or under the English government.

The present map is, we think, deficient in not expressing the direction of the mountains. The marks employed for this purpose injure the beauty of the engraving, but add greatly to our knowledge of the nature of the country, or, as it is sometimes affectedly styled, the *local*. If these had been introduced, it would have been seen that the vast cataract of Niagara falls over a branch of the Alleganhy mountains. What would be the consequence should their foundations fail, or an earthquake remove them? For a time all Lower Canada would be inundated, and all the shallower lakes drained. The depth of the more considerable ones, by plummet yet unsounded, will determine, whether any remain. An event of this kind, certainly within the limits of possibility, should not permit us wholly to discredit the Egyptian fable of the Atalantis, in whatever quarter of the world it may have been situated. The hair which suspends the sword is strong, and founded as the globe itself, and yet—— it is *suspended at a point*.

The map, as appears from its extent, comprehends the northern parts of Pennsylvania, New York, the Massachusets, &c. laid down with equal accuracy, but not so minutely distinguished as the country of Upper Canada, the surveyor's principal object.

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*A General Map of the Empire of Germany, Holland, the Netherlands, Switzerland, the Grisons, Italy, Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia. By Captain Chauchard, &c. Atlas, on Imperial Paper, Eight Guineas, including the following Quarto Volume of Reference.*

*A Geographical, Historical, and Political Description of the Empire of Germany, Holland, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Prussia, Italy, Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia: with a Gazetteer of Reference to the principal Places in those Countries. Compiled and translated from the German. To which are added, Statistical Tables of all the States of Europe: translated from the German of J. G. Boetticher, of Königsberg; with a supplementary Table, shewing the Changes since the Commencement of the present War. Dedicated to their Majesties and the Royal Family. Illustrated with Twenty-four Plates, and a large Three-Sheet Post Map of Germany, Holland, Italy, &c.* Stockdale.

IN a work of this magnitude it will be proper first to listen to the publisher's prefatory address, which introduces the illustrative volume.

'The acknowledged difficulty of procuring good maps in England has so long been felt and complained of, that any exertion to remedy such a serious inconvenience was not likely, in a country eminently distinguished for its liberality, to pass wholly disregarded; especially at a time when the state of continental affairs agitated every mind, and naturally created inquiry and search after information, in which the whole nation was in a greater or less degree concerned. The demand occasioned by this universal search after knowledge, for Chauchard's maps, which, from their acknowledged accuracy, were invaluable, could in very few instances be satisfied, even at an exorbitant price; and the publisher's situation in the centre of the political world, where the evil seemed beyond redress, first induced him to turn his thoughts towards an undertaking, certainly the most extensive in its nature ever engaged in by an individual in these kingdoms.

'The difficulty of procuring a copy of the original at the outset would not readily have been surmounted, but for the generous liberality of George Ellis, esq. M. P. who, with eagerness, gratuitously sacrificed his own private collection to the advancement of the projector's interest, and the general advantage of the community.

'At this period the original copies were considered cheap, when they could be met with, at the price of ten guineas, notwithstanding the impressions were so faint as to be scarcely legible, and consequently of little or no intrinsic value. This too was for Chauchard's maps only, without the reduction on three sheets, the nine additional sheets for the completion of Italy, or this volume.

'In a map so minute and crowded with names it was natural to suppose that the errors of the original must be numerous, and the omissions of importance. In demonstration of this, it will suffice to notice one of particular magnitude, that of leaving out the range of hills which separates France and Switzerland, called Mount Jura; an error that required only to be discovered to call for immediate correction.

'It cannot be supposed, notwithstanding the care of the best engravers, and geographers of the highest ability, who have examined the different plates, that in the copy, as in the original, faults may not be numerous, though it must be added, none which can be of consequence from their magnitude. The imperfections, as such, however minutely attended to, there will ever be, must be found chiefly among the small names of trifling villages, &c. which in few instances only can be worthy of criticism; particularly as the opinion generally expressed by the best judges was, that had half of these minutiæ been totally omitted, the map would have suffered no decrease in value; but it might then have been averred, that it was no longer like the original; and

such as were inclinable to severity and censure would then have had ground for their assertions.

'Innovation was also the less necessary, as few maps have ever held a higher rank in public estimation, not only on account of its accuracy, but likewise from assigning to each place the original name of the country whereto it belongs; a mode which has generally been adopted throughout the re-publication, except where universal acceptation in England made an alteration, in some few instances, adviseable, and indeed perspicuity for the English reader rendered necessary.

'An extension of the south of France was requisite for the sake of uniformity in all its parts, which addition the original, from being published at various times, certainly stood in need of.

'Repeated, indeed, were the solicitations of many of the subscribers for the completion of Italy on the same grand scale, before the publisher yielded to their unremitting remonstrances, though, from the assurance most generally manifested by each subscriber to be possessed of every thing connected with the work, it now becomes a subject rather of exultation than regret.

'This extension consists of nine sheets, occupying a space equal to the map of Germany. The materials to which recourse has been principally had for this compilation are Zanoni's Map of Italy, Boscovisch's of the State of the Church, and the more recent publication by Bacler Dalbe of the campaigns of general Buonaparte in those countries.

'Sicily is principally compiled from the map of Delisle; the island of Sardinia from the publication of the Piedmontese engineers 1753; and that of Corsica from Bacler Dalbe.' P. 5.

That Mr. Faden expressed some suspicions of Chauchard's accuracy is a circumstance which might as well have been concealed; nor are hasty or careless expressions fit to be noticed in print even in this age, when every thing is printed. Mr. Faden is himself extremely attentive to accuracy; and though he might join the universal applause of Chauchard's Map of Germany, yet we may justly doubt the accuracy of the accompaniments here added, as it requires no common skill to compile and connect a good map even from the best authorities.

We may observe that the illustrative volume is decorated with the plans of tours originally, we believe, published by Mr. Andrews; and Boetticher's tables, which are valuable and interesting, also form a separate publication.

The list of subscribers is one of the most numerous and respectable which has ever appeared, the map being sold to them at five guineas in sheets.

After these introductory remarks, we may proceed to state, that Germany having, by a strange fatality, produced few good maps, and that the latitudes and longitudes of many of even the

chief towns remaining vague and unascertained by proper observations, the general map by Chauchard was favourably received by the Germans themselves, the best judges of its merit. In general the native maps were either on too large or too contracted a scale; either military atlasses, which confused by their minuteness, or so small as to answer few purposes of reference.

Chauchard had also applied the eminent skill of a French engineer and man of science; so that his Map of Germany, in nine sheets, justly gained great applause; and deserved re-publication.

This praise, however, cannot be extended to the additional nine sheets here published, which the most skilful geographers regard as far inferior in accuracy; nor are the hasty maps of Buonaparte's campaigns held in much estimation. A mere republication of Chauchard's Germany would, in the eyes of scientific men, have been more valuable than this motley compilation. We may, on the present occasion, speak with freedom; for though in general, where a great expence has been incurred with a good intention, we should rather wish to abstain from any appearance of censure, leaving the production to time and the public, yet, as a numerous subscription has, according to report, richly recompensed the proprietor, criticism need not shrink at the voice of humanity.

Even in Chauchard's map there is a singular defect for a work of that magnitude. While the rivers are delineated with great attention, and even the forests and woods so carefully marked as, in some instances, (for example sheet five of the present edition,) to render the names almost illegible, and the effect hazy and disagreeable to the eye, yet the mountains and hills, which, in good maps, require an attention at least equal to that bestowed on the rivers, are, in general, treated by Chauchard with great carelessness. The hills, for example, on the Rhine, those of Hesse, of the Hartz, and in the lower part of the Circle of Upper Saxony, are sometimes totally omitted, and at others inserted without accuracy or just discrimination.

The chief object of a map ought to be, in the first place, to lay down the coasts, rivers, and ranges of mountains with extreme precision. When these perpetual features of nature are delineated, and the names of the rivers and mountains accurately marked, the next and last procedure is to insert the cities and towns. Instead of this plan we find even eminent geographers totally negligent in the course and denominations of the rivers and mountains; and, in the present magnificent series of maps, the latter may be said to be almost wholly neglected. So much so, that even the grand divisions of the Alps are passed without their denominations, and scarcely is the name given of any particular mountain, however remarkable in history, natural or civil; while the name of every paltry obscure village upon these mountains is carefully noted. In this respect M. Chauchard him-

self may be said to have reached the acme of absurdity, by the most laborious attention to trifles, and a total neglect of the grandest features of nature.

Such being his practice in the Alpine regions of Salzburg, &c. we do not wonder that he has scarcely marked the great ridges that inclose Bohemia, nor that Mont Jura was totally omitted! This is indeed the less to be wondered at, as the Germans have been so inattentive to orology, or the knowledge of mountains, that while they have published maps of their rivers, there is not, so far as we know, any one extant which gives even an imperfect view of the German mountains.

As a map in which the chief features of nature are omitted cannot be pronounced to be accurate or complete, we do not hesitate to accede to the censure bestowed by Mr. Faden, whose skill in this subject is universally acknowledged. We have given our reasons, and let the reader judge.

That the towns and villages are laid down with great care and accuracy in their just positions, and at their exact distances, we are willing to allow; and this may suffice for the common consulters of maps, though far from being sufficient for the eye of science.

There are some few errors in the names, as copied by the English artists; but we do not wish to point out trifling mistakes in a work of spirit and enterprise. The faults we have above noticed we could not refrain from mentioning, in justice to our own characters as well as duty to the public; and, upon the whole, must express applause of Mr. Stockdale's endeavours to make a series of valuable maps more familiar to the English reader.

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*Map of the Rhine and adjacent Countries from the Mediterranean to the North Sea and the Entrance of the Baltic. By Captain Chauchard. Five Sheets.* Stockdale. 1801.

THIS is merely a re-publication of the western part of Chauchard's map, with a strip added on the right hand, in which fewer names are inserted than occur in Chauchard's Map of Germany. The publication of the same books, and maps, under different titles we must abominate, as savouring of trick and finesse; and we are sorry to see the name of a respectable publisher affixed to this vamped-up business. The deception is the more improper, as the southern part of this map is not by Chauchard. The publisher is also, perhaps, unaware that we have excellent maps of the Rhine, recently published in Germany, and that a map of the course of a river is supposed to indicate the nature of its banks, with their various elevations and

depressions, &c. &c. instead of being crowded with the names of villages, of no consequence either to the man of science or the general reader.

We hope never again to meet in Mr. Stockdale an old friend with a new face.

---

A series of large and accurate maps of the government of Riga, begun in 1791, and finished in 1798, has been published at that city by Hartknoch. The scale is about a German mile to an inch, computing the German mile at fifteen to the degree—the copy before us consisting of eight sheets; but as there is no general title, it may be imperfect. The engraving is very clear and distinct, and the work seems to have been conducted with extreme care.

---

Mr. Seeberg of Gotha has published a small chart of the Red Sea, the epithetic words being expressed in German. The same geographer has published a small chart of the Mediterranean from the newest astronomical observations.

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All these maps may be had of Mr. Escher, German bookseller, in Gerrard-street.

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END OF THE THIRTY-SECOND VOLUME

## ERRATA.

Page 33, line 1, for *die for* read *deify*.
110, — 38, for *laſt* read *ſhaft*.
247, — 3, for *capital* read *Capitol*.
487, — 26, for *mild* read *wild*.

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